The Nation.

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The Week.

Whatever real danger there may be of the Panama Treaty failing in Colombia will arise from disappointment there in the matter of general pecuniary expectations. These were extravagantly and ridiculously high. The $10,000,000 finally agreed upon was as nothing to what the Colombians looked for—and, indeed, demanded at first. At the very least, $30,000,000 was to be had from a rich country with a bursting Treasury which had done the unbusinesslike thing of first telling Colombia that it was going to buy her canal, and then asking her to name her price. To all the remonstrances of Secretary Hay, the one answer was that given by the Brazilian arbitrator at Geneva to the Englishmen who protested against the size of the Alabama award—"Vous êtes riches." Indeed, so high were Colombian hopes pitched that when Minister Silva, being a man of sense, told his Government that it would be impossible to obtain more than $10,000,000, he was recalled in a rage and practically hounded to death after he got home. His goods were sequestrated, he was exiled from the capital, and finally died in what was practically imprisonment. His fate gives one some idea of the way in which popular sentiment was running in Colombia at the time, and, as we say, of the nature of the real perils which the treaty has yet to encounter before final ratification by the Colombian Congress. These may easily prove serious, yet we are confident that they will be surmounted.

Not the least interesting phase of the Panama Canal settlement is the problem of remitting the purchase money. Forty million dollars is a substantial sum to draw in a brief space of time from a given money market. It is true that the Treasury has a surplus fund largely in excess of $200,000,000. But of this sum, $150,800,000 is on deposit with the banks, and therefore employed in the money market, while the balance held in the Treasury's own vaults exceeds by only twenty or twenty-five millions the sum which the Government habitually keeps for its cash exchanges. If, therefore, the purchase money were to be paid to the French owners of the property in cash, a heavy draft on bank reserves would be necessary. Such large international payments, however, are not primarily made in exported coin, but in sterling bills, by use of which the recipient draws on London. As a rule, such bills are on three or six months' time. When, however, they mature, they must be met by the American market. Payment may then be adjusted in one of three ways: by borrowing abroad again, renewing the bills as they mature; by selling to Europe enough of merchandise or securities to offset its claim; or by sending gold. It is impossible to say, at the moment, which of the three expedients will in the present instance be adopted. That is a question largely dependent on the state of the money market and the promise of this season's harvests. The question is interesting chiefly because of the present strain on New York's market, and the low figure at which bank reserves stand.

Even if the Cuban treaty had not been tortured out of its original semblance, it would still lag two years behind our pledges. It was early in 1901 that President McKinley and Secretary Root formally and solemnly promised the Cubans to admit their sugar and tobacco to our markets at a reduction of 20 per cent. from the Dingley rates. We have thus been an unconscionable time keeping our word. Even so, we have made our grudging fulfilment practically valueless by new stipulations. As the treaty stands, it cannot go into effect until after Congress has had one more chance to repudiate a promise. More than that, it has been loaded down with one-sided amendments. Cuba had made large concessions to our trade in order to secure favorable treatment for her products, but the Senate has insisted upon much larger concessions. In an ordinary case, this would be tantamount to killing the treaty, since the party of the other part would not consent to what it would be sure to regard as an unjust demand. Even as the matter rests, there is danger that the treaty may perish. The period within which ratifications were to be exchanged ends with March 31. The Cuban Senate, after ratifying the treaty as it stood, adjourned until April, and had to be reconvened expressly. Its action is uncertain and delay may ensue. The situation can no doubt be saved by a supplementary agreement between the two Governments, but the natural, and perhaps the designed, effect of the Senate's action would be to give the treaty the finishing blow then and there. Our record in the whole affair is most melancholy. It does credit neither to our business shrewdness nor to our sense of national honor.

Neither Gen. Leonard Wood nor the American public should be satisfied with his off-hand denial of the charges made against him by Estes G. Rathbone. With the latter's contention that he has been the victim of gross injustice, we have never had any sympathy. He has, however, put his finger upon some things in Gen. Wood's record which can be cleared up only by an official investigation. This is plainly called for. Ever since Gen. Wood left Havana, rumors have been rife that both he and a member of his family accepted presents from the gambling combine which made enormous profits out of the *jai alai* game. In his recent denial Gen. Wood states that the personal presents he received were gifts from a delegation of Spanish merchants. Just who these "merchants" were is the point at issue. That there were no Cubans among them is due primarily to the General's unpopularity with all classes of the native-born islanders. The public belief was that the "merchants" were those who profited by the gambling allowed by the American authorities, and Gen. Wood owes it to himself and the honor of the army to show beyond doubt that the donors had no connection with so scandalous and disreputable an institution.

Incidentally, Gen. Wood ought to explain why this gaming was tolerated under his administration. It was never permitted by the Spanish Governors, and never obtained a foothold until a year and a half before the end of the American occupation. Gen. Brooke suppressed the Havana lottery and had passed strict anti-gambling laws which were enforced for a time. Under the plea that it was properly licensed and was the "national game," Gen. Wood and his staff lent official sanction to its iniquities by almost daily attendance in search of the strenuous life. It is useless for him to say that it was under the authority of the municipality of Havana, for he frequently interfered with the Havana government and had it completely in his power. He could not have been unaware of the demoralizing effects of the game, because he knew it by daily observation. But if he were blind, he must still have known that the Cuban newspapers denounced *jai alai* as the most demoralizing influence in Havana. "The bill limiting the betting in the *jai alai* establishment has been practically abandoned because the Platt amendment binds the Government to carry out the contracts which were approved by the Military Government." Thus a dispatch from Havana in Tuesday's newspapers, printed side by side with Secretary Root's summary dismissal of the charges against Gen. Wood made by Rathbone. We have heard much about the admirable qualities of the Platt amendment. It was to safeguard Cuba from foreign interference, to protect our interests from any fu-

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ture ingratitude on the part of the Cubans, and to give us some choice harbors for our navy. Now it appears that, in addition to all its other virtues, this amendment makes it impossible for Cuba or the city of Havana to purge itself of a betting ring with exclusive privileges bestowed by Leonard Wood, representative of American morality!

The remarks of Gen. Adna R. Chaffee at the Methodist Social Union on Friday evening on the subject of the Filipinos were almost cynical in point of frankness. As reported in the *Tribune*, he was not prepared to say whether the Filipinos were our enemies or not. Then he added: "I am an exploiter, and I believe that if we ever get any good out of the islands we must explore and exploit them." Of all men who have had opportunity to know the feelings which the natives of those islands cherish toward us, Gen. Chaffee has perhaps stood in the best position to learn, and it seems that he is not able to discern the friendship which other Imperialist authorities have frequently affirmed to exist since we succeeded in putting down armed resistance. We may assume, therefore, that the state of peace in the islands is of the familiar kind which exists where there are no means of fighting. Gen. Chaffee's frankness is equally commendable in the other half of the quotation, where he says that if we ever get any good out of the islands we must exploit them. We can imagine that the assembled brethren must have winced a little at the thought that we were in the Philippines in order to make money out of them, or that we never should make anything else out of them worth our trouble. We have been assured so many times that our only purpose from the beginning has been to introduce the blessings of civilization and Christianity, and that our chief reward for all the American blood and treasure spent there would be an approving conscience, that Gen. Chaffee's cold remarks to the contrary seem quite shocking. Somebody at Washington ought to "rebuke" him.

Senator Money of Mississippi was at least frank in declaring on March 18 for negro disfranchisement and for the absolute exclusion of colored men from office. He was asked if the South demanded that, and replied that the South made no "demand," but had a "feeling" that negroes should neither vote nor hold office. This is a distinction which colored men in the South will "feel" to be without a difference. Senator Foraker wanted to know if the Southern people were also willing to have their representation of disfranchised negroes cut down, but Mr. Money answered, with a fine Kipling air, that "that is another question." He will find, however, that it is an essential part of the same question. We must, nevertheless, give the Mississippi Senator credit for a certain generosity. He would not shut colored men out of the army. He is quite willing that they should fight for a flag which will not protect them.

Charleston dispatches report that one hundred white men have applied for appointment under the new negro collector, Dr. Crum. Office is the great leveller, after all. It bids fair to break down even race prejudice—that is, prejudice against the race that has clerkships to bestow. Senator Money informed the Senate that the South had a violent and invincible dislike to "sharing" the responsibilities of government with an "inferior race." That, however, was before one of the inferior race had appointments to dispense. As soon as he had them, white men came forward, a hundred strong, perfectly willing to share the responsibilities of government with him. There is evidently a great difference between Dr. Crum, Collector of the Port, and a mere member of an inferior race whose "enfloons wuz powerful lackin'," as Uncle Remus said of the Mud Tukkle and the Spring Lizzud vs. the Elephent.

By linking together his recess appointment of the colored man, Mr. Crum, and the tainted man, Byrne of Delaware, President Roosevelt appears to imply that a like reason constrains him in both cases. But the two are as different as light and darkness. The Senate Committee on Commerce gave no reason for rejecting Crum except the fact that he is a negro. But that is no reason at all. Granting good education and high character, as is done by everybody in the case of Dr. Crum, to allege his color as a bar to office is so preposterous that the President is fully justified in saying that, as long as the Senate is too cowardly to reject the man outright, he will stand by him. But the Judiciary Committee had the best of reasons for its two adverse reports on the nomination of Byrne. It was able to show that he had a wretched professional record in office, and also that he had sold himself body and soul to the most huge corrupter of the age. Either is a convincing reason, and should have been so to the President. By sticking to Byrne, he has, whether he knows it or not, given encouragement to every briber in the land, and, in particular, brought glee to every scoundrel in Delaware. Theodore Roosevelt will be said to have struck hands with J. Edward Addicks, and the President's best friends will not be able to deny the charge. We know, of course, what is said in defence. Byrne is one of Mr. Roosevelt's "good fellows," who has been "useful to me." But there is no surer way of losing character than to cling to good fellows who drag you with them into the Addicks mire.

An interview with Senator Aldrich informs us that he, as Chairman of the Senate Finance Committee, will soon appoint a sub-committee to sit during the recess and prepare a "comprehensive" financial bill. His object is to have such a measure ready for presentation at the beginning of the next session of Congress. This news is gratifying for two reasons: it assures us not only that the controlling forces of the Senate have awakened from the slumber into which they relapsed after the passage of the so-called gold standard act of 1900, but that they intend to go beyond the limits of the Aldrich bill of the last session, which related to the deposit of public money in the national banks, and adopt a more thoroughgoing measure. It is a fortunate circumstance that a committee of the National Bankers' Association, of which ex-Secretary Fairchild is Chairman, will be laboring on the same problems at the same time. That the latter body can give valuable assistance to the Senate Committee, if asked to do so, is evident. That such help would have been useful in perfecting the details of the Aldrich bill of the last session is known to all who have made a critical examination of it, and would probably be admitted by its very author. Another encouraging sign is the fact that President Roosevelt himself has taken occasion to express the hope that the movement initiated by the Bankers' Association may bear fruit for the coming Congress.

Rhode Island is rousing at last from its apathy over political corruption. For many years the citizens have listened patiently to counsels of despair, and have folded their hands in meek submission to the "all wise and unscrupulous" Providence that has fastened the clutch of Boss Brayton on their throats. To-day, they are beginning to struggle against fate. The publication of the infamy of Rhode Island to the whole country is having its natural effect upon the minds of the residents, and they are asking themselves whether in fact they must lie forever with their necks under Gen. Brayton's heel. The position, though undignified, was tolerable so long as the matter was kept private; but the pillory has been too much. Clearly the time has come for a non-partisan movement against bribery. If Bishop McVickar, if the clergy generally, if the professors of Brown University, if other men of light and leading will unite for action, they can count upon all the help that outsiders can give in such a contest; but if they are not ready to move now, Rhode Island must stew in her own juice for a while longer. Honest Repub-

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licans and Democrats can surely sink their differences and join in opposing the open auction of laws and offices to the highest bidder. If, in such a fight, decency cannot ultimately triumph, Rhode Island must confess that the republican form of government is a failure.

Of course, the English Conservatives have a large enough majority in the House to lose seat after seat in bye-elections, yet still remain securely in office, but their succession of electoral reverses is greatly damaging to the prestige of the Ministry. People will say that the country is getting tired of the Government, and that it is going stale. Indeed, signs multiply that such is the fact. All the more importance, therefore, will attach to the Irish Land bill, of which the long-delayed introduction is now momentarily expected. The fate of the Ministry will be wrapped up in it, since a failure there would almost surely force a resignation or a dissolution. Even as it is, the losses at Woolwich and Rye are facers for Mr. Balfour. He wrote a characteristic letter to the Woolwich Conservatives, urging them not to be content with giving merely a "languid support" to their candidate. This, from the eminently languid Balfour, excited some amusement, which was not diminished when the supposedly safe constituency was lost by 3,000 votes.

No one can deny to Premier Combes the courage of his opinions when he induces the Chamber to suppress in a single vote the schools of some fifty teaching orders. Such wholesale treatment of very different cases had already aroused the protest of the moderate press, and M. Combes's substantial vote of confidence must be taken as a distinct sign of a revival of anti-clericalism. The basis of the vote was an elaborate report on the status of fifty-four men's religious associations that had applied for authorization under the Associations Law of 1901. Most of these teaching congregations, it is fair to note, are contumacious. They have stood upon alleged previous authorization and have complied with the new law only under duress. The report of M. Fernand Barbier, which was accepted on March 18, took up these cases one by one, and usually decided that these orders not only are, but for years had been, without warrant of law. While only an expert in French jurisprudence could criticise the report in its legal aspects, in common sense it is obvious that congregations which have for a hundred years maintained a public existence cannot properly be suppressed for irregularities of long standing. All the historical portion of the Barbier report, while doubtless of great value, gives the impression of an anti-clerical tract.

Premier Combes, in defending the report, took the high ground that the teaching in the schools of these orders is anti-republican. He appealed to old hatreds of the priest, and to the people against the aristocracy and bourgeoisie, and his policy of thorough proscription undoubtedly is popular for the moment; but there is an uneasy sense that he has taken Waldeck-Rousseau's programme too literally, and that the Associations Law would be more comfortably enforced by its original promoter. It is probable that M. Waldeck-Rousseau, who is at present occupied with his candidacy for the Academy, is, at heart, of this opinion. It remains to be seen what evasions of the Associations Law are possible and whether Premier Combes, as is probable, will be as persistent in ferreting out nominally secular bodies that will attempt to continue the work of the monastic schools, as he has been successful in rebuking the religious orders themselves.

We should be glad to believe that the great Parisian factory of ancient works of art has been unearthed, and a check administered to the business. It is certain at least that extensive fabrication of modern paintings has been discovered, and that the scandal reaches even to the Louvre, where, among other objects of supposed antiquity, the authenticity of the famous and costly "crown of Semiramis" has been put in question. Forgeries of ancient goldsmiths' work are of a peculiarly insidious character, and it may be recalled that some of the handsomest pieces in our own Metropolitan Museum cause connoisseurs to wag their heads sorrowfully. Such incidents as that at Paris show that the requirement of skill in museum curators must be considerably increased. The forgers can be beaten only by a connoisseurship superior to their own dexterity. The best curators will be deceived at times, but as forgery becomes more and more a fine art and an established industry, only the best will be tolerable. We may call attention also to a request in the current number of *Les Arts* for a museum of registered impostures and fabrications. Such an institution would not lack utility, and every great collection, by a careful weeding process, could easily start such an exhibit on a sufficient scale—from its own store.

Chancellor von Bülow's defence of his recent foreign policy, in the Reichstag on Thursday, will at least add to the gayety of nations, and will do nothing to impair their comity. In the Venezuela matter he insisted that the Government had acted with dignity and wisdom, but he refused to commit the Empire to an identical course in any similar case which might arise. Some very pungent comment on Ambassador Speck von Sternburg's amiable indiscretions, which culminated in the very happy characterization of that nobleman as Germany's "Expiatory Envoy" to the United States, produced the retort that Von Bülow had denied the accuracy of the Sternburg interview in the *North German Gazette*. It is evidently in this semi-official organ that one is purged of folly, and wisdom is justified of her children. Answering captious criticism of Baron Sternburg's choice of an American wife, Von Bülow neither affirmed nor denied the propriety of such a match; but when he quoted Bismarck as saying that, in a previous instance, to refuse permission to a German diplomat to marry an American "would exercise an extremely unfavorable influence upon our relations with the United States," he showed a deficient sense of humor.

Of a more serious character than Von Bülow's genial apology for his official course is the report that Germany and Great Britain will try to prevent any reference of the Venezuela dispute to the Hague Tribunal, and will resume direct negotiations with Venezuela. In any case, their temper is such that Minister Bowen, as plenipotentiary for Venezuela, has had to remind these two great Powers that the preliminary cash payment, due April 1, will not be made until the protocol referring the question of preference to the Hague Tribunal has been signed. Mr. Bowen would hardly have taken so unusual a course without grave reasons. The fact appears to be, first, that Germany is none too friendly to an international arbitration court which is in a sense superior to the Empire; secondly, that a large class of the Venezuelan claims—those of the Disconto-Gesellschaft were ridiculed last week in the Reichstag—would hardly bear the scrutiny of an impartial court. It is probable that some of the German creditors would prefer any kind of cash settlement to a judicial finding. But it would be highly unfortunate if so interesting a question as that of international preferential claims—one that the jurists of the Hague Tribunal are eminently qualified to settle—should fail of an authoritative decision. Aside from this, the attempt to go behind Mr. Bowen's settlement would inevitably create an impression that the claims of England and Germany were doubtful. It may well be questioned if Venezuela will consent to the reopening of the negotiations. Her interest is that of all the smaller nations—to enhance the authority of courts of arbitration. Direct dealing with greatly stronger Powers is always terminable at the will of the stronger, and, as the Venezuelan case itself shows plainly, the dénouement tends to follow the fable of the wolf and the lamb.

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THE STRIKE VERDICT.

In weighing the report of the Anthracite Strike Commission, we have to look both at the case it had in hand and the general attitude and demands of organized labor all over the country; both to immediate results and remote effects. And, first, we note with pleasure the emphatic way in which the unanimous Commission arraigns the Mine Workers' Union for acts of intimidation and violence, culminating in murder, denounces the boycott as an illegal and abhorrent weapon, and vindicates the rights of free labor. This is a splendid body of doctrine. It goes to the root of union tyranny. We expected no less from a Commission on which sat such outspoken men as Judge Gray and Bishop Spalding. "A labor or other organization whose purposes can be accomplished only by the violation of law and order of society, has no right to exist." Those are golden words. To have had them thus authoritatively uttered is of itself cause for gratitude to the Commission.

Along with this clear and high denunciation of the Union's methods goes the practical granting of its demands. The men get their 10 per cent. advance in wages. Their hours of labor are, at the same time, cut down. In the matter of checking and "topping" coal, as also of car distribution, the Commission appears to have gone nearly the full length of the miners' demands. They have won what the operators vowed they could not possibly concede. Whether these can yield it now without permanently increasing the price of coal, remains to be seen. The steadiness of the "coalers" in the stock market, in face of the advance in wages for mining which the Commission's report provides for, is pretty good evidence that the operators believe that they can recoup themselves in some way from the sales of coal. In other words, they can take the 10 per cent. increase out of the consumers. This is not at all unlikely. They may even take more. The shortage of last winter has led people to look upon coal at any price as a benefaction. Householders are no longer disposed to higgle over such small differences as twenty-five or fifty cents per ton. Thus the element of personal resistance to an advance in price, which has heretofore been formidable, has largely disappeared. Public opinion is now ready to concede something in this direction. The purely economical side of the case is the question how far anthracite is indispensable—that is, not liable to be superseded by bituminous coal. We may assume that the producers of anthracite will, if they have not already done so, form a combination sufficiently strong to put limits upon competition among themselves. Then it will be a matter of experiment how far the producers of bituminous can penetrate into their territory. The higher the price of anthracite, the wider will be the door for bituminous to come in. At some future time society may have to reckon with a combination between the anthracite and the bituminous interests, but nothing of that kind is possible now. The law of competition will soon decide whether the advance of wages in the anthracite field can be taken out of the consumer or not.

The report intimates that the Union is founded on a bad system, which makes it difficult for the operators to bargain with the leaders. The Commission also discredits the assertions of the miners that conditions of life in the anthracite region were intolerable, and that wages were shockingly low by comparison. The excuses put forward for child labor in the mines are riddled by the report, of which a very significant paragraph is that which concerns the status of minors in a union. The Commission says: "We believe it is unwise and impolitic to permit boys of immature age and judgment to participate in deciding the policy and actions of a labor union. We think no one should have such a voice in the affairs of a union until he has reached his legal majority." In this opinion the Commission virtually condemns the ordering of the late strike. It is notorious that the older miners were against the strike, and that the Hazleton Convention was in the hands of delegates elected by breaker-boys, whose votes made up the majority for the strike. These youthful unionists voted quite as much in the interest of a holiday and a scrimmage as in behalf of the rights of labor. They were throughout the strike a very dangerous element. Their mischief-making readily passed over into rowdyism, and created an atmosphere of disorder in which criminal outrages became possible. A history of the strike which omitted to mention these breaker-boys as an irresponsible element in the union, and as constant fomenters of violence throughout the strike, would be lamentably incomplete. So would the Strike Commission's report have been if it had failed to point out this inherent viciousness in the organization of the United Mine Workers.

We fear that this organization will shed the Commission's rebukes like so much water. "That is all right," they will say, "but we have our increased wages and shortened hours and the practical recognition of the union, just the same." It was in order to secure these results that they created a reign of terror in the coalfields last summer, boycotted men, women, and children, and clubbed and murdered independent laborers. Without violence, without the boycott, they would not have succeeded. The Commission practically admit this. Which, then, are the miners most likely to take to heart—the fact that their plan of terrorism and blood won a victory for them, or the other fact, that they are severely reproved at the moment of triumph? What is likely to be the net effect in Waterbury, or among the New Haven and other labor unions contemplating a strike? To us it seems probable that shrewd labor agitators will see in John Mitchell's success a plain hint to do as he did—that is, publicly deprecate violence while doing nothing to stop it and allowing his locals to have full swing; to draw the boycott tight, and to denounce non-union men as enemies of their class.

Contributory to this we must regard the Commission's visiting with an equal censure the stubbornness of both sides in holding out to so great a pitch of public anxiety and distress. In view of its present findings regarding wages and other relations, those who before held the operators to be exclusively to blame for the coal crisis, will be confirmed in such condemnation. The truth is, however, that these findings have no bearing whatever on the question of the operators' responsibility. The differences between them and the Union were subjects for arbitration undoubtedly; but unless on the assumption that a strike is presumptively just, there can be no escape from the burden of the famine resting upon the shoulders of those who ordered the strike of May last. They created the situation which hourly grew more perilous; and if the peril became a reason for the operators' yielding, then the assailed must be for ever in the wrong, and the assailants need only be persistent enough and heartless enough to persuade the suffering public in the end that the oppression is all on the side of their victims. Nor must it be forgotten that the operators were not unwilling to discuss grievances with their own people, and that the Commission does not condemn them for not recognizing the United Mine Workers.

As for the particular and most difficult arbitration referred to the Commission, the solution arrived at has much to commend it. In the first place, the settlement is to be for three years at least. For that length of time we shall be free from the convulsions and alarms of last autumn. Next, there is provision for a board of conciliation, to hear and determine any disputes which may arise about the interpretation of the award itself, or other controversies between miners and operators. Obviously, there is here the germ at least of a system of permanent arbitration, and the doing away with the old chronic state of warfare in the coal regions. Thanks are due the Commissioners for their patient and truly disinterested labors.

THE ISTHMIAN CANAL TO-DAY.

The vote in the Senate ratifying the Isthmian Canal Treaty assures the world that the work of uniting the At-

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lantic and Pacific Oceans by a canal of sufficient dimensions to admit the passage of the largest ships afloat will be accomplished within a measurable time. As no such assurance has ever been given to mankind before, we may fairly point to the Senate's action as an epoch-making event. It may be interesting at this juncture to see what the United States has bought for the $40,000,000 which we are to pay to the French Company for its holdings in the Isthmus of Panama.

The International Technical Commission of 1898 reported that the De Lesseps company received from the sale of its securities $260,000,000, that there had been actually expended on the isthmus the sum of $156,400,000, and that of this sum $88,600,000 had been laid out on the work of excavation and embankment. The difference between the two sums last mentioned represents the purchase of the Panama Railway and other expenditures which, if not really necessary, were inevitable at the inception of so vast an undertaking. Thus was gained a great deal of experience of a costly nature which will not be necessary to acquire a second time, but which may be properly reckoned as a valuable asset to any party buying the property with a view to its completion. It is quite within bounds to say that what we have bought is worth more than we shall pay for it. And if it be true, as some of our foremost engineers believe, that the De Lesseps route is the only practicable one for a canal between the oceans, then our bargain is so much the better. The estimate made by our own commission of the value of the property as it stands was exactly the amount that we are to pay, but, of course, they were bound to make the best possible terms for their own Government.

The extreme length of the canal is forty-six miles, of which nearly one-half will be at sea level. Eighteen miles have been already completed, and the intervening higher lands have been materially cut. It was the opinion of the international commission that two-fifths of the whole work has already been done. The original intention of De Lesseps was to make a sea-level canal, but this plan was abandoned as too costly. A system of lockage was adopted which will be followed in the future progress of the work. According to this plan there will be eight locks between Colon and Panama. The commission reported that there was nothing in the physical conditions of the isthmus to prevent a change from the lockage system to a sea-level canal if the latter should seem desirable in the future.

The only engineering problems of great importance on the Panama route are the Culebra Cut and the floods of the Chagres River. The summit cut at Culebra is nearly eight miles long, and at the highest point the bottom of the canal is 286 feet below the natural surface of the ground. A considerable part of this work was done before the De Lesseps company failed. The material to be excavated consists of an indurated clay. Much difficulty was encountered by the French engineers by reason of the sliding of the hillside as the cut proceeded. It has been ascertained that this was due to the saturation of the ground, and that when it is properly drained it stands firm. As regards the Chagres floods, the report of our commission says that they can be controlled by a dam at Bohio, and that the retained waters will be useful in operating the canal in the dry months.

The cost of completing the canal as estimated by our own commission, of which Rear-Admiral Walker is President, is $144,233,358, and the time necessary to do the work ten years. Assuming that the Colombian Government promptly ratifies the treaty, the work of excavation can be resumed where the French company left it, in about eighteen months.

When the De Lesseps company failed, it was apparent to everybody that the work of piercing the isthmus was too great to be performed as a private enterprise or by any government except a very rich one. M. de Lesseps brought to his company every advantage that a private undertaking could enjoy. As the builder of the Suez Canal, he had acquired a prestige not enjoyed by any other engineer, living or dead. The financial results of that work had been dazzling, and had excited the imagination of the French people in a high degree. Patriotic pride, too, largely entered into the Panama Canal. It was believed that France could do anything that her great engineer should advise, and she could undoubtedly have completed this great work if the French Government had lent its own credit to the undertaking. But it was not within the compass of volunteer effort, and it would probably not be so now, even if the threat of a competing canal were not held over it.

The Nicaragua Canal may now be considered defunct. Whether it was originally begun like the De Lesseps enterprise as a bona-fide attempt to build, by private means, a waterway 183 miles long and large enough for modern steamships, or whether it was intended from the start to sell it to the Government of the United States, it is abandoned by all men and governments. We shall probably see bills introduced in future Congresses to pay the heirs and executors of the Nicaragua Canal for the work they tried to do.

THE CASE OF MAJOR PLIMLEY.

In the saving—yet so as by fire—of the public service from the calamity of having Major William Plimley made Assistant Treasurer, there is matter for reproof and instruction, as well as congratulation. The appointment was one which should never have been made. The nominee was scandalously unfit. His record in other offices in this city was such as to disqualify him absolutely for a position of delicate responsibility, like the Assistant Treasurer's. Not to put too fine a point upon it, Major Plimley was perfectly well known by bankers and others to have used, or to have attempted to use, his public office as a means of private pecuniary gain. Operations that would not bear public scrutiny characterized his career in the Post-office and as Commissioner of Jurors. These facts having been finally made known in high circles at Washington, the shrieking absurdity of Major Plimley's appointment to the Treasurership became apparent, even there.

In this city it was matter of jocose or astonished comment from the first. Business men were complaining that they did not know him. Politicians chuckled over knowing him too well. Plimley has been for years a political rounder and perennial office-seeker. He was long a Platt hack. Latterly he has sunk still lower than that, and become a Quigg hanger-on. The idea of naming such a man, down on his luck, for the important office so long filled by the late Conrad N. Jordan, would seem one that could never have occurred to people out of bedlam. Yet he was not merely appointed, but confirmed by the Senate; and it was only a lucky chance that revealed to the Finance Committee and to the President how grossly they had been deceived. They found out their mistake in time, but how did they ever fall into it originally? Under what sort of political system do we live when a roving political adventurer like Plimley can come so near getting into one of the most important offices in the gift of the President?

Mr. Roosevelt cannot be held blameless in this matter. He was deceived, no doubt, in the character of Plimley, but he had no business to be deceived. He is too old a bird to be caught by Platt's chaff. It was his duty to go behind the recommendations of that veteran debaucher of the public service, and of his dummy Depew, and to inquire who and what manner of man it was they were asking him to appoint. Half a dozen letters to friends in this city would have brought him full assurance of the worthlessness of the nominee. The President set about filling the office of Assistant Treasurer in the correct way. He looked for a man well known in the business world. The position he first offered to Mr. Sheldon, then to Mr. Bacon. Both declined, and then Mr. Roosevelt, apparently in a fit of impatience, turned to Platt. That worthy, of course, had a man up his sleeve, and promptly pulled out Plimley. The Pres-

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ident took him, evidently without due investigation, on the theory, as it was explained, that it was "impossible to find a $30,000 man for an $8,000 job." But that was no excuse for taking a thirty-cent man for it.

This notion that every honest and capable man in New York is earning from $20,000 to $30,000 a year is flattering to our pride, but we fear that it would break down on oath and under severe cross-examination. We are acquainted, of course, with the "sacrifice" which lawyers make when they give up their practice to take a judicial salary of $17,500; and yet we are credibly informed that there are some good lawyers in this city who make a few hundreds less than that. Similarly, we are persuaded that if President Roosevelt had persisted in his search, he could have found a trustworthy and able business man willing to assume the duties of Assistant Treasurer. We venture to say that the Clearing House could have given him his choice of a dozen such. Or, if he found it so difficult to obtain the right man outside, why did he not promote some one already in the Treasury service? Mr. Conrad Jordan rose from the ranks in that way, and his efficiency was all the greater from his having been bred to the business. In any case, it would have been better to leave the office forever vacant than to put into it a shady character like Major Plimley.

The work of the Assistant Treasurer at New York is of extreme delicacy and importance. He has to be in touch with banking interests and to have the whole monetary situation at command. As intermediary between New York financial institutions and the Secretary of the Treasury, it is incumbent upon him not only to be above the suspicion of dishonesty, but to be singularly intelligent and informed, to be able to make rapid decisions, and to give sound advice to his chief at Washington. The part which Mr. Jordan played in the crises of 1893 and 1895 in known only to men on the inside, but it was of the greatest value. To pitchfork a ne'er-do-weel like Major Plimley into an office where such vast financial interests daily interpose, would be to make a mock of the public service. As we have said, it is wholly inexcusable in President Roosevelt to have allowed himself to be so easily tricked in that matter. As for Senators Platt and Depew, the incident only furnishes one proof more that they really care not a straw for the best business interests of the city, and would make a party football of an office second only in financial importance to that of the Secretary of the Treasury. Could Senators elected by the people have done worse?

It is worth recording that one gentleman who furnished the *Evening Post* with conclusive proof of Plimley's bad character, is said to have manifested something like abject fear at the thought of its becoming known that he had done so. He would not have it made public for $10,000. It would mean his business ruin. Such alarm is all too common. It accounts for the increasing numbers of those who come secretly to furnish evidence of rascality, and to bid the fearless editor strike and spare not, but who always wind up with the fervent plea, or strict injunction, "For Heaven's sake, don't mention my name!" This terror-stricken state of mind is exactly the thing which a mercenary and unscrupulous political organization like Platt's aims at producing in society, and especially in the business world. It wants to have the impression go forth that no man can oppose it and prosper. To refuse to sign its petitions; to expose its scoundrels; to dare to stand up in public against its nefarious machinations—that, it would have the community understand, spells ruin. Nor is pretence or bluster its only weapon. It has numberless back-door business affiliations. Able to throw "good things" now and then to favored banks, it gets a hold upon their directorates which it uses without mercy. A pronounced anti-Platt man may suddenly find it mysteriously difficult to get his notes discounted. Loans are called. Business is strangely withheld. The thing cannot be traced, but a sort of financial blight falls upon the merchant or the financier who has defied the machine. The few cases of the kind that actually occur are bruited abroad,, and become multiplied and magnified in the excited imagination of business men. Hence their civic cowardice. Hence the growingly arrogant tyranny of the political freebooters who call themselves the party organization.

THE MORTGAGE-TAX BILL.

The Mortgage-Tax bill wnich has been brewing at Albany ever since Gov. Odell's message was presented, was introduced on Thursday. The last Legislature adjourned on the 28th of March. Unless the present session shall be considerably lengthened, the time for considering this measure will be brief, and not at all commensurate with its importance. We presume that the delay in bringing the measure forward was not due to design, but rather to its inherent difficulties, which are formidable enough to warrant even greater procrastination than has already occurred.

The measure provides for the taxation of mortgages on real estate in New York. The tax is to be levied at the place where the land is situated, and if it is not paid the land is to be sold. If there is more than one mortgage on the property, each one must be taxed, and the property must be sold for a default on either. It is immaterial whether the owner of the mortgage is a citizen of New York or not. His residence may be in another State and he may be taxed there for the same mortgage, in which case the paper security would be taxed in one place, the land security in another, and the land itself would be taxed also against the owner of the fee. And here we have triple taxation.

The right of New York to tax all the tangible property situated within its borders, irrespective of the owner's residence, is not questioned; but its right to tax the claim which a citizen of Massachusetts holds against a citizen of New York is more than doubtful. No such right would be asserted or imagined if the claim were not secured by a particular kind of pledge—that is, by a mortgage on land. If the credit of the New York borrower were good without such pledge, or if he should give any other kind of security, New York would not extend her taxing power over the Massachusetts lender. But it is plain that without this absurd and probably unconstitutional stretch of authority the tax on mortgages cannot be made effective; for if those owned in other States were exempt, while those owned here were taxed, there would be an extensive transfer of that class of securities to other jurisdictions. A mere scratch of the pen—that is, an assignment—would be sufficient for this purpose. So it would be impossible to prepare, or to keep in good working order. a list of taxable mortgages for the use of the public authorities.

The difficulties attending the preparation of the list are formidable in any case. The bill provides that the lien of the tax shall take effect on the first day of July in each year, and that notice of the amount of the tax shall be given in September after the lists have been corrected, and the tax shall be payable at the office of the county clerk or register where the mortgage is recorded. Now what is meant by a list and by the correction of a list? There are probably 100,000 live mortgages and 50,000 obsolete ones in this city. They are recorded in books in the register's office. Only a single person can use a book at one time, and these books are constantly in use by lawyers for purposes connected with litigation in the courts. To make out a list for purposes of taxation a schedule must be prepared, showing ten separate entries: (1) the name of the mortgagor; (2) the name of the mortgagee; (3) the original amount of the indebtedness; (4) the present amount of the indebtedness (which can be furnished only by the holder of the bond accompanying the mortgage); (5) the amount of interest overdue, if any; (6) the amount of the tax as calculated by the register; (7) the amount of the tax after deducting payments of principal already made; (8) date of payment of tax; (9) date of appeal to State Tax Commissioners, or to the courts, if appeal is taken; (10) "remarks." All of these requirements were specified in the

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schedule accompanying the Mortgage-Tax bill which was before a former Legislature.

The preparation of such a list is obviously a gigantic undertaking, but the correction of it is even greater. The list must be posted up in the register's office and is to be taken as final unless the holders of mortgages come and examine it and point out errors. Then there will be opportunity for argument between the mortgage holder and the register (who is really the collector of the tax) on disputed points, and when the proper corrections are decided upon they must be entered in the proper place on the same list, since the list of any year will form the basis and starting-point of the list for the next year. This would not be a very onerous task if the number of mortgages to be catalogued were very small, but how would it be in the county of New York or any other large county? Think of the crowds of people who would be thronging the approaches to the register's office, and jostling each other, and waiting their turn to get access to the lists and also to the books from which the lists are prepared. Under the terms of the bill, citizens of other States holding mortgages on property in New York must come or send agents to inspect the lists. If there has been a second or a third mortgage on the property, which has become obsolete by payment, but has not been cancelled, it will be taxed, and then, perhaps, nobody will have any interest to look for such a lien. In such a case the land would be sold for non-payment of the tax just the same. Obsolete mortgages arising from sales under foreclosure are almost infinite in number, but the fact of foreclosure is not shown on the register's books.

These are only a few of the complications certain to arise under the Mortgage-Tax bill. If passed it will introduce endless confusion in the ordinary business of the community, and will probably be found in the end unworkable. When we reflect that it is founded upon a wrong principle, and is condemned, on both fiscal and moral grounds, by the highest authorities on taxation, and has been repeatedly rejected by former Legislatures, we can only wonder whether the present Legislature expects to "jam it through" in the short time which presumably remains of the present session.

CITANIA.

[SALAMANCA, June, 1902.]

In the northwestern part of Portugal lies a district called "Entre Douro e Minho" from its position between those two historic rivers; it is not only one of the most interesting regions of the country, but in many ways the most beautiful. Between the natural richness of its soil and the industry of its thrifty peasant population, the valleys and small plains are literally gardens of greenery in early summer, with a perfect shelter and background of heavily wooded hill-slopes, dotted with towns, churches, and often shrines. Unfortunately, railway communications are slow and uncomfortable—even for Portugal; but the inns, which have the double quality of goodness and cheapness, might well induce a traveller with energies still unexhausted by the conventional, yet undesirably greater, attractions of Alcobaça, Batalha, and Thomar (all lying far to the south), to pause before rushing at Pampilhosa into the "Sud Express" for Paris with the conviction, defensible it is true, that the sights of the country have been done.

This comparative remoteness preserves to Northern Portugal its singularly unspoiled characteristic peasant life, full of color and movement, the only approach to which in Western Europe is possibly to be found in Sardinia. To the archæologist and student of bygone civilizations the whole region offers, moreover, a very peculiar interest deriving directly from the above-mentioned union of fertile stretches with hilly fastnesses, of which the early Celt-Iberian inhabitants availed themselves in the construction of towns, now entirely ruined, but still perfectly traceable on several summits of no great elevation. The most important as well as best known of these goes by the generic name of *Citania;* and as many readers of the *Nation* are probably unfamiliar with Mr. Oswald Crawfurd's 'Portugal, Old and New,' or with Mr. Émile Cartailhac's authoritative work,'Les Âges Préhistoriques en Espagne'—the only commonly accessible books on the subject—I feel some warrant in presenting an account of a recent visit to those vestiges of an ancient people unmentioned in most books of Portuguese travel, and disposed of by the invaluable Baedeker in a short paragraph of small print. Moreover, the latest investigations have rendered details of interest not contained in either of the above special works.

The ruins of Citania, and its immediate neighbor, Sabroso, are situated about midway between the two important towns of Braga and Guimaraes, these last two connected by a truly superb highroad in excellent repair, and for the most part so embowered in vine-swathed trees that the way suggests an avenue in a noble park decked out for some festal occasion. Of the many lovely drives in this district, or indeed in Portugal, none appeared comparable to this for sustained, finished, quiet beauty. The short day's excursion is accomplished in a roomy two-horse landau or travelling carriage for the very moderate price of six thousand reis, which, in the present depreciated condition of Portuguese money, may stand for about five dollars and a half. Add to this the sight of Braga and Guimaraes, quaint with curving streets and balconied domestic architecture so different from the tamely successive white walls and red tiles of the south, and one is more than repaid for the exasperating experience of the crawling *Bummelzug.*

The midway halt of Caldas das Taipas, a local health resort, embedded in luscious foliage, is the starting-point for Citania, at the neighborhood of which one arrives by a fair country road leading to the hamlet of Briteiros, commanded by the small dome-shaped eminence on which the ruins stand. At Caldas, the travelling-carriage is very likely to be encircled by a ring of spectators, interested and even sympathetic. There is, by the way, no more striking contrast between the two countries that compose the Iberian Peninsula than in the very general practical helpfulness one meets with in Portugal as against the indifferent aloofness of bystanders across the nearest border. A proof of this I found in the unusual "traveller's luck" that befell me here. In the midst of a debate as to the wisdom of engaging a local guide and saddle-horse for the side-trip, a stranger came forward with an offer of his services for a thorough visit in return for a lift to the next town. His credentials were beyond criticism, for this *cavalheiro* turned out to be a local land-agent, whose knowledge of Citania had come through several years' service as steward on the large estates of the late Francisco Martins Sarmento, the accomplished local antiquary who, after discovering the ruins, made them known to the scientific world in 1874. A trifle of persistence, with a working knowledge of uncouth Portuguese, thus placed me under obligation to a most efficient guide, whose modesty forbids either mention of his name or ample recognition of the fashion in which he interprets the traditional hospitality of his country.

From the tiny hamlet of Briteiros at the foot of the hill that bulks steadily larger as we spin along the country road from Caldas, bordered with thatched stone cottages and well-tilled fields, two approaches lead to the top. The easier, circuitous path, preferable on all accounts, discloses the intelligent purpose that guided the selection of the site and the construction of the massive fortifications guarding the approach from the less defensible quarter, for after a comparatively easy ascent of twenty-five minutes along the roughish footpath, a sudden turn brings one face to face with the remains of a tolerably preserved guard-wall constructed on the very spot where a *coup de main* from the valley below might have carried the whole eminence. Here, the hill shows rather as a promontory than a detached height, its weakest point blocked by the aforementioned wall, about a yard in thickness and probably between twelve and fifteen feet high in its original state. Like the other constructions of the town, this is composed of smooth-faced blocks of stone of unequal sizes, so fitted together, without cement, as to present the appearance of carefully built masonry; the cleavage of the strata is so clean that stonecutters must have had little more than finishing to do. From about this point the whole crest of the hill is traversed in its length by a narrow paved street, long protected by the rubbish only recently cleared away, for its paving-stones show some signs of wear, but only such as might have been made by human feet, not by beasts of burden. On either side of this narrow roadway are remains of low walls, of the usual construction of the locality, the original height of which can be only guessed at because of the devastation which has left but their stumps standing; one or two courses alone remain. Stepping over these, we find scattered about the plateau clusters of foundations of buildings, some circular, some oblong, in shape, which it requires no great effort to recognize as having once served the purposes of the early inhabitants

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either as dwellings or as storehouses; to the question of their designation I shall presently return.

Close to the middle of the hilltop stands what my guide indicated as the mouth of the public fountain of the settlement, a rough opening of the same sort of primitive masonry, several of the stones of which show signs of much rubbing. On examining them, there came into my mind the well-curb at S. Gimignano, worn into gutters by the friction of bucket ropes of many successive generations. Near by, a fairly regular ridge of the same closely fitted stonework carries all along its upper surface for many yards a carefully grooved runlet, which cannot have been anything else than the tiny aqueduct supplying the wants of the settlement. But much the most curious, as well as significant, discovery since the publication of the authorities mentioned above is that of an opening which in the plains would probably be passed carelessly by as that of an old well. Taken into account, however, with the existence of another aperture eight or nine hundred feet below, and a full half-mile away on the bank of the little river Este, it suggests, as my guide said, one of those strangely laborious tunnels through which the primitive inhabitants of hill-cities used to guard against the cutting-off of their water-supply in a state of siege. One can only wish for time and means to make a thorough exploration, though I understand arrangements are already made for following up the passage from the river end, which is clear for some little distance. The importance of this point in deciding the nature and purpose of the ruins, it is hardly possible to overestimate.

Another interesting feature, before we pass to the ruins proper, is the presence, in somewhat striking abundance at irregular intervals over the top of the hill, of conical stones ranging in height from one to about three feet. No one can fail to observe them, but what they were meant for is a strange puzzle. As Mr. Crawfurd says, if they occurred in the Far East, there would be no doubt as to the part they played in religious worship; but these cartridge-shaped objects among primitive Celt-Iberians can hardly be supposed to have fulfilled such functions. Besides, their great numbers weaken any such conjecture, for they are scattered all about, intact or broken, and must have been originally abundant enough to furnish at least one specimen for every building in the place. It must also be noted that no single structure on the hill gives ground for the supposition of a temple or place of worship. The hypothesis of the "totem" seems either not to have occurred to any of the European investigators, or to have been dismissed with silent contempt.

Much the most important point remains yet to be examined, namely, the real nature of the buildings themselves. So far as guesswork can help us, there is reason to believe that their original height did not, as a rule, exceed eight or nine feet; and through the labors of Sarmento two of them were some years ago reconstructed in accordance with that belief near the edge of the steep face of the hill commanding all the lower valley. Most of these buildings are, as was said, circular, with an average diameter of, perhaps, twelve feet; none that I found the opportunity of measuring came within near approach of Mr. Crawfurd's "twenty-one feet in diameter." The oblong ones are comparatively few in number. The thatch, which, according to some authorities, originally formed the roof, might easily have been supplied from the fields below, and the continued use of the same substance for the farm-houses of the neighborhood certainly gives color to this conjecture; yet the fragments of tiles which, till within a few years ago, were found in quantities strewn about among the ruins, would seem to point to a different kind of covering. Within recent times, the cleaning processes of archæologists have removed all these broken shards in part to private collections, but also in sufficient amount to the local museum of Guimaraes to give one all the data desirable for inference. When I saw the place, most of the interesting parts were as clean-swept as a well-kept private yard. From the spot where the remains are thickest, the descent is extremely abrupt, a short ten minutes being sufficient to bring one to Briteiros once more.

That these singular ruins were placed for safety at the summit of this precipitous hill, guarded on the accessible side by the stout defensive wall, cannot be doubted for a moment:

> "In yon straight path a thousand
> Might well be stopped by three."

But it seems to myself extremely improbable that the buildings, circular or oblong, could have been (as some authorities hold) nothing more than storehouses for grain or other valuable produce. The selection of secure heights for constant dwelling purposes is one of the most natural of primitive dispositions among people almost daily exposed to the risk of hostile raids. That the buildings, crowded together in irregular array, were unsuitable as houses, can hardly give pause to any one who observes how little the state of domestic promiscuity affects the huddled populations of the humbler type, whether within or without the pale of civilization. Nay, that very form of social compression serves as a convenient means of prompt communication when danger threatens. And the comparatively recent discovery of the fountain-mouth, the small aqueduct, and the subterranean passage would give marked support to the opinion that Citania was properly a town.

But this hill is by no means the only one on which such remains may be found. A few furlongs away is another, on the summit of which there may still be seen the vestiges of a settlement to which is given the name of Sabroso. A chance acquaintance, professedly familiar with the greater part of the Minho province, assured me that during sporting expeditions he had in several places come across fragments indicative of similar occupation which are only waiting for the explorer. All of these bear the same general characters, but it is evident that they do not all belong to one period, for the quality of the masonry is found to differ here and there, while the much less ancient date of some of them can, as in the case of Sabroso, be established through the unmistakable signs of Roman influence on the objects found among the ruins. The small local museum at Guimaraes makes this clear at the most casual glance.

As to the state of civilization attained by the inhabitants, it is sufficiently attested by the various articles of glass (such as beads), pottery, and iron implements, which, in the case of Citania at least, have all been removed, classified, and ticketed. The arts of ornamentation, too, were not neglected. There may be found at various points well-cut large stones bearing on their edges a carved moulding, the pattern of which resembles an ordinary woven rope, the strands being imitated very fairly indeed; this is reproduced by clever Portuguese stonecutters in the pedestal of the monument now in process of construction to the memory of Sarmento. Also, rude stone images exist, such as representations of domestic animals much like the attempts of ambitious schoolboys; so that in one case there is some doubt as to whether the design was meant for a nondescript dog or an abnormally lanky pig. One elaborately carved stone, of huge dimensions, has had the unusual fortune of serving as a crux for archæologists and of migrating in a totally unprecedented manner. This is the celebrated *Pedra Formosa*. It is a great slab of dark red stone, about nine feet by five, and more than one foot in thickness, of which the upper, tolerably smooth surface is cut into curious patterns of long parallel grooves radiating from holes bored through or nearly through the whole mass, the under surface being left in the rough. From the positions of these holes and grooves it has been somewhat hastily conjectured that the Pedra Formosa in its original situation was placed horizontally and served as a sacrificial altar for human victims; according to this hypothesis, the holes were resting-places for various parts of the wretch's frame, while the grooves were gutters for collecting the flow from veins or arteries opened at various points on the body. It does not seem to have occurred to the authors of this explanation that a more accurate correspondence in these designs with the average proportions of the human frame might lend support to their conceptions. What this stone was meant for, in short, nobody has any real knowledge. Its changes of habitat have certainly been exceptional. For centuries it lay on the top of the hill, as old Portuguese authorities, ignorant of the other ruins, testify, until an enterprising parish priest, some generations ago, induced his flock to transport it to the porch of the small chapel of Saint Stephen, near the bottom of the hill, where it again remained undisturbed for some time. Sarmento, however, with true archæological zeal, had it again taken up the hill at enormous expense, and placed in one of the reconstructed buildings; but the constant chippings of natives and tourists induced the final removal to the museum at Guimaraes, where any one may examine and theorize over it under the eye of a stern custodian.

Much the most interesting problem that offers itself for solution when one is among these ruins,

> "Sitting at the doorways of a day of long ago,"

is their antiquity, and the cognate question of the race of the builders. On both these points archæologists, Portuguese or other, have written abundantly, with the usual amount of more or less temperate criticism of divergent views. The first formal notice of the discovery, communicated to the Royal Academy of Sciences at Lisbon by the

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Marquis de Souza Holstein, in 1876, is by no means decisive, for at that time investigation had not yet disclosed the variety of manufactured objects sufficient to furnish sound ethnological inductions. In the following year a somewhat discursive pamphlet by Simão Rodr. Ferreira, Oporto, sought to prove the Celt-Iberian origin of these remains—a conclusion virtually accepted by all the leading authorities today. It is worthy of note that at a famous gathering in Citania, which in 1880 brought together such men as Virchow, Henri Martin, and Quatrefages, the testimonials to Sarmento as discoverer discreetly avoided stirring up the dust of controversy, and confined themselves to those forms of elaborate compliment with which scientific men are wont to cheer one another's labors. But iron tools, glassware, pottery, and carved stonework, combined with an entire absence of flints of any sort, will be considered amply indicative that the builders belonged to no extremely remote antiquity. Nothing yet discovered (so we read) discloses any sign of Christian influences; but in the carefully sifted object-records of Sabroso several investigators have agreed in recognizing contact with the early Roman occupation of Northern Iberia. It seems, therefore, reasonable to suppose that these primitive inhabitants may have continued to occupy their fastnesses, with but little molestation, until the crowding in of more warlike populations brought about the gradual decay of an altogether peculiar set of local customs, partly by forcible conquest, partly by the assimilation with their conquerors of a population mainly agricultural and hence peaceful.

To-day, the site of the ancient town still commands a lovely view, probably little changed in its main features since, centuries ago, the unknown people looked down on the cheerful valley and across the ribbon of the river to the higher mountains beyond. Of their inheritance, the Portuguese peasants of the north know nothing, though traditions and legends concerning the vanished race might yet be found by the student of confused folklore. It would be a pleasing task to trace back through all those ages the persistence of a racial trait of the Minho province in the prevailing cheerful spirit of industry and thrift. P. T. L.

Correspondence.

PROTECTION GONE MAD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Austrian Reichsrath for some time has been considering, and by this time probably has passed, a measure so hedging about and so restricting peddling, and making the penalty in case of non-compliance so exorbitantly high, that the 16,000 peddlers of Austria and its provinces are practically deprived of every means of earning a livelihood. For, of course, most of the peddlers are past the age in which a new trade can be learned, and, besides, there are such obstacles around the learning of trades, the "civilized world" over, that the peddlers could not learn any trade if they wanted to do so. This bill is a provision for the protection of the storekeepers, and was introduced at their instance by Deputies anxious for reëlection.

One would think this the "ultima Thule" of protection, the last possible limit to which the highway robbery gently termed "economic fallacy" can be extended. But not so; there is one more step. It was reserved for the Austrian Reichsrath to achieve it in another bill—at the present writing a duly enacted law—making it unlawful for sempstresses and embroiderers of white goods to sew for customers in any place other than a factory. Sempstresses are forbidden under penalty to work in their own homes, or in the homes of their private customers.

The first bill protects the storekeeper against his *fellow-countrymen;* the second, a law, still further narrows the "protective idea," protecting the manufacturer of white goods against his *fellow-townspeople.* The class of people hit by this second bill consists almost entirely of widows and orphans. But then, whither are "people's representatives" drawn by their hearts if the choice is between widows and orphans on the one side and "infant capital" on the other?

While penning these lines I hear that the national organization of the journeymen tailors of the United States tries to compel the Toledo union of journeymen tailors to work in back shops. The circumstance that the national organization tries to impose the will of the local minority, desiring back shops, upon the local majority of journeymen tailors opposing back shops, is in itself remarkable, and an instructive sample of the brand of liberty to be expected from labor unions. But this case has another very puzzling aspect. The national organization of journeymen tailors intends to forbid all unions of journeymen tailors to work in their homes, and wants to compel them to work in the back shops attached to merchant-tailoring establishments. And, save a few exceptions, the unions are submitting to this order. Now, although there are some circumstances that do in a slight measure soften the contrast between what is a desideratum to a Viennese sempstress and an American journeyman tailor or tailoress, yet what a paradox! American tailors trying to bring about conditions that the Viennese sempstresses are straining every nerve to avert! Joseph Dick.

Toledo, March, 1903.

BOOKER WASHINGTON IN RUSSIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the following paragraphs taken from the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for February 15, the writer draws a comparison between the Russian serfs and our Southern slaves, and points hopefully to a common line of advance.

"Par la suite aussi, les seigneurs développèrent chez leurs serfs l'adresse des doigts en leur faisant apprendre tel ou tel métier. Beaucoup de maîtres agissaient de même en Amérique à l'égard des esclaves pour leur donner plus de valeur. Des deux côtés, l'esclavage se trouva donc être une initiation à l'industrie. Et à ce propos je mentionnerai la très intéressante lettre d'une dame russe qui, après la publication dans la *Revue* d'une étude sur Booker Washington, me pria de la mettre en rapport avec le promoteur nègre des études industrielles; 'Je voudrais lui dire,' m'écrivait-elle, 'combien me frappent les traits de ressemblance entre son peuple et le mien; l'esclavage sans doute en est la cause; je voudrais lui faire remarquer que l'apparition des mêmes idées et de la même manière de traiter les mêmes questions aux deux extrémités du globe est la preuve incontestable de la conformité de ces idées, de leur justesse, et le garant de leur réalisation future. Les idées sont comme des épidémies; elles gagnent le monde insensiblement et apparaissent tout d'un coup, sans indices, sans annonces quelconques, dans des lieux différens; elles donnent à penser que c'est la marche historique des choses qui les fait naître et qui nous amène à croire en elles.'

"N'est-il pas curieux de voir une propriétaire russe envier pour son pays l'Institut nègre de Tuskegee (Alabama), et une correspondance s'établir sur des questions de pédagogie très spéciale entre deux personnes dont la race et l'origine n'ont rien de commun? Peut-être, si les moujiks savaient lire, n'en seraient-ils pas très flattés." C. E. W.

Buffalo, N. Y., March 20, 1903.

ABOUT CULTURE AND COMMONNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is because of too great a preoccupation with the merely useful that our age is hastening toward mediocrity. In this country there are many factors making for commonness, and few, in comparison, making for culture. Let us examine the situation and see if this be not the case. Is education, as understood by most, and as it is used in common parlance, synonymous with culture? According to Matthew Arnold, it is not, and Matthew Arnold has given us a very satisfactory definition of culture. Let us draw a comparison. Architecture is called by some a fine art, but that does not make it a fine art. Rather it is the materialization of fine art. Fine art is devoid of utility. In architecture there is utility. Now we can see how education can be likened to architecture, while culture can be likened to fine art.

In the smaller colleges the aim of the student is education for utility's sake. In the universities the greater number are seeking utility. The graduates are to be professional men or journalists or engineers, and are aiming at financial success. This is education as Americans understand it, as they worship it. "The disinterested pursuit of perfection" is for the few, and is so undemocratic, so opposed to the utilitarian standards, that "education" almost taboos it.

Matthew Arnold divided the English people into three classes—barbarians, philistines, populace. We should not go so far wrong as to be misunderstood if we were to divide the American people in like manner and use the same titles. Our upper class, or barbarians, do not count for culture; they count for utility attained and used ostentatiously. Our philistines, instead of engaging in the disinterested pursuit of perfection, are very interestedly pursuing philistinism. Our populace, separated by no impassable barrier from philistinism, are reaching toward it, and may attain it. Gladstone once said the English people had made a kind of religion of inequality. We have made a religion of utility, and this is why we have much commonness and little culture.

Let it not be understood that I am belittling our colleges and universities. They are doing a great work, but they have a great work to do—a Herculean task. They are our only safeguard against the vulgarity of an ever-increasing populace. If the result is commonness, let us remember that commonness is superior to vulgarity. Cul-

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ture we have, and, upon the whole, much of it, but it is so diluted with what we cannot call culture that the result is commonness. J. A. BARTHOLOMEW.

NAPLES, N. Y., March 20, 1903.

THE CERTIFICATE SYSTEM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On Friday and Saturday, March 6 and 7, a large number of teachers in preparatory schools came together at Brown University to discuss with the faculty certain aspects of college entrance requirements—in especial, the certificate system—and to form a "Brown Teachers' Association." Several papers were presented by members of the college faculty and by preparatory teachers, a more or less desultory debate followed, and the association was formed. The precise nature of the work it will do is still a little vague. But that it can be widely and variously useful to both the college and the schools is undoubted.

While its precise lines of action are yet vague, it may not be out of place to suggest that the most important task before it is not the holding of more or less acrimonious debates, but the inculcation of a somewhat different attitude on the part of the school teachers towards the university and its requirements. For the present conference but seems to confirm a fact often noted before—that teachers, in many cases, do not come to these conferences to hear what the colleges wish them to do, but to protest against the standards and the methods of the colleges. Sometimes the protest is outspoken; oftener it forms an easily discernible undercurrent of bitterness. In the present instance, it was noteworthy that the only one of the prepared speeches made by school teachers which took the attitude that the university was the final arbiter in the matter of the entrance requirements, received but slight applause, while a speech which contained a hardly veiled threat was loudly clapped.

In substance, this threat was as follows: If the colleges do not recognize that the key to the situation is in the hands of the schools, the schools can—and the speaker's tone implied *will*—cut off the supply of students. To support the right of the schools to join in settling the nature of the college entrance requirements, this speaker, in company with others, dwelt on the fact that the public-school curriculum is not constructed solely for future college students, and that the colleges cannot expect changes in the public schools to suit the college requirements. Rather, the colleges must change their requirements to suit the schools! One may well query whether, if the exigencies of the public schools are to settle what the colleges are to require for entrance, the colleges should not construct their curricula solely on the basis of the training these schools afford. Shall we then see Chemistry I. in X College eliminated because it does not follow coherently the kind of chemical training thought best in the Y High School?

The fatal misconception of the relation of the colleges to the schools which underlies such a view is evident. Here in the East at least, our colleges are not the last steps in a vast public-school system, but private institutions, admission to which is to be regarded, not as a right, but as a privilege, and a privilege which must be carefully guarded by the authorities of the colleges. If the course in a given school does not meet the demands set by a given college, the school may, of course, hope for changes in the requirements, but it cannot confidently demand changes unless it can show the requirements to be wrong in themselves. To many teachers, both in the schools and in the colleges, it seems axiomatic that if the certificate system is to endure, it can only be by means of an eager desire on the part of teachers to learn just what the colleges which grant the certificate privilege desire, and to meet those requirements. Any attempt to force the colleges into accepting whatever the schools desire to present must, sooner or later, result in disaster for the certificate system.

The question of the permanency of the certificate system was designedly excluded from the present meeting, and the teachers who came from one of the largest and best preparatory schools of New England to speak in favor of entrance by examination found their ground cut from under them. Yet there are signs, not the least of which is the formation of an association of colleges to control the schools that give certificates, that the certificate system is not working entirely well, and that the school mind is querying as to the future of the system. In the meantime, many college professors, rightly or wrongly, will interpret about as follows: "You school teachers admit examinations to be good, for you say you do not grant certificates to pupils who fail to pass your school examinations; but you object to preparing pupils for an examiner who doesn't know just what you've said and done." This is not an unnatural attitude. Most professors would hardly desire to submit their students to their colleagues for examination. Yet it is surely within the bounds of possibility that many college courses would be better taught if that were the rule. And here, after all, is the root of the matter. It is not very important that this or that faculty should feel that its dignity has been injured by sharp comments, or that this or that teacher should be unhappy because his pupils have failed to pass tests set by a college examiner; but it is of vital importance to know whether the certificate system has improved the preparation for college.

I say "improved," because, while its opponents assert it to be a mere crutch for the lame and the lazy, its supporters assert its superiority to any other conceivable method. In discussing this point, we have heard, *ad nauseam*, from both teachers and professors. Why not consult the only other persons concerned—the students? The testimony of a boy in a preparatory school will inevitably be that it is a fine thing to get out of the examinations. The same boy in college often sings a different tune. So far as I have heard the college student speak on this point, he usually says: "The certificate system is well enough for the good student. But he could pass the examinations and get in anyway. For the man of shaky preparation or abilities, it's a poor thing, because he often comes to college at great expense, struggles for three months or more with courses he isn't fit for, and then is sent away." Whether this statement is entirely frank or sound I do not pretend to say. I wish merely to point out that, the certificate system not being yet a finality, we ought to gather all the evidence, and that a large body of evidence has not yet been used. X.

PROVIDENCE, March 13, 1903.

CHAIRS OF CHINESE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just received the *Nation* for December 25, 1902, and beg to ask you whether, on page 501, column i., in speaking of chairs of Chinese in the United States, you refer to the chair in Columbia or to that in the University of California. The latter was endowed by Regent Tompkins some twenty years ago, but the land which he gave for the purpose was not sold till 1898, when it became salable for $50,000, the amount which Mr. Tompkins judged necessary. Since 1898 the chair has been filled in the person of Professor John Fryer, who for thirty years was in the service of the Chinese Government as translator and compiler, and who is probably one of the most accomplished Chinese scholars now living in America. His chair is known as "The Agassiz Professorship of Oriental Languages," but his work is chiefly in Chinese, with some attention to Japanese.

I am, very sincerely yours,

EDWARD B. CLAPP,
Professor of Greek in the University of California.

BERLIN, March 12, 1903.

FROM SUIDAS TO BLAKE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to the volume of 150 "Sonnets" published in Boston by the Rev. James Vilas Blake of Chicago and briefly reviewed in your issue of March 12, under "Recent American Poetry," I venture to express the hope that the sonnet quoted in your article is not a fair specimen either of the poetic qualities or of the originality of the remaining 149. You will find the little story, with the identical details as told in the sonnet, in the second book of Lessing's Fables, being number 28; but Lessing was—well, let us say—old-fashioned enough to give credit to Suidas, from whom he took the story.—Very respectfully,

A. B.

CHICAGO, March 16, 1903.

INDEXES THAT DO NOT INDEX.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A good example of this sort, in a book much more widely used than the one lately discussed, is the "revised and enlarged" edition of Palgrave's 'Golden Treasury,' Macmillan, 1898. The "Index of Writers," pp. 371-3, has not in any item any relation to the text. F. M.

Notes.

Hitherto unannounced by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are 'The Correspondence between Ralph Waldo Emerson and Herman Grimm,' edited by Frederick W. Holls; 'Ruskin's Comments on Dante,' with an introduction by Charles Eliot Norton; 'Trent's Trust,' by Bret Harte; 'The Confiscation of John

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Chandler's Estate,' by Andrew M. Davis; 'Of Education,' by R. R. Bowker; and 'Alice Freeman Palmer,' a report of a memorial service.

Prof. James A. Harrison returns to his latest study in a 'Life and Letters of Edgar Allan Poe,' in two volumes, to be published by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

In April, Harper & Bros. will publish in connection with Chapman & Hall a *de luxe* edition of the Poems of Charles Dickens, compiled and annotated by Frederic George Kitton.

Another popular edition of the works of Charles Dickens is announced by Chapman & Hall and Henry Frowde, the joint publishers of the "Oxford India Paper Dickens." They are coöperating in the production of a new, complete, and fully illustrated edition, to be known as "The Fireside Dickens." There will be twenty-two volumes in all, printed in large type on good opaque paper with decent margins, and published at a low price. The first three volumes are on the point of being issued.

'A Prairie Winter' is announced by the *Outlook* Co.

Richard G. Badger, Boston, will bring out the verse of the late Mary M. Adams, wife of the late President Charles Kendall Adams, under the title, 'The Song at Midnight.'

'How Paris Amuses Itself,' by F. Berkeley Smith, and 'Washington, its Sights and Insights,' by Mrs. Harriet E. Monroe, are in the press of Funk & Wagnalls Co.

A new Life of Andrew Jackson, by Arthur St. Clair Colyar, Nashville, was announced by the author in the third number of the *Gulf States Historical Magazine*, in terms not quite convincing of the capacity of this defender of Jackson against "two books that are largely defamation," viz., Parton's and Sumner's. The extract from his introduction is accompanied by a copy of an original oil portrait of Jackson by Earle—more like Harvard's LL.D. than like Old Hickory.

The Dictionary of National Biography, besides its supplementary three volumes already published, and a fourth contemplated, consisting wholly of corrections, is to be provided with 'An Index and Epitome' in one volume of 1,464 pages, as a brief guide to the contents of the great work. There has been a general scaling down of one-fourteenth, under Mr. Lee's editorship. Each summary will have an indication of the place of the original article. The publishers are Smith, Elder & Co. (New York: Macmillan).

The firm of Cotta, in Stuttgart, in order to celebrate the hundredth anniversary of its becoming Goethe's publishers (1806-1906), is taking time by the forelock, and has already brought out the first and twelfth volumes of its jubilee edition of Goethe's works. These are respectively the Poems and "Iphegenie," "Tasso," and "Die Natürliche Tochter." Publication will proceed at a rate to arrive abreast of the century ending 1906.

Baedeker's 'Southern Italy' in the fourteenth edition is imported by the Scribners. This indispensable assistant to the traveller whose pocket and German are both too small for "Gzell-Fell," has been thoroughly revised and brought up to date. Former loiterers about the cliffs and mountains southwards from Naples may easily verify the truth of the general principle asserted in the preface—that "charges . . . have a constant tendency to rise."

A vade-mecum of a more formidable sort is Mr. Ernest A. Baker's 'A Descriptive Guide to the Best Fiction, British and American.' This stout volume comprises some 4,500 titles, the chief translations of foreign novels, a list of historical romances arranged chronologically, and a subject-index. Since the authors are introduced alphabetically by periods, it is very easy to consult the lists. This differs from the ordinary bibliography in giving a brief hint of the plot of each book and occasionally a characterization. Obviously, Mr. Baker cannot have read all of the 4,500 "best" novels, and such a statement as that "Sidney's 'Arcadia' is . . . Gothic in manner" has not only a second-hand but an eighteenth-century tang. For all the early period of English literature the book is inadequate, but the full notes on editions and prices in the later period will save many a weary hunt through the publishers' catalogues. Mr. Baker makes frank confession that his book contains more than the usual number of errata, a few of which he enumerates. A complete list of corrections would have been more grateful amends.

'Hazell's Annual' for 1903 (New York: Scribners) has been purposely delayed in order to make a finish of 1902, and this is perhaps to be the rule hereafter. Among the year's topics are the consummation of transatlantic wireless telegraphy; the Rhodes bequests; the coronation of King Edward; consumption sanatoria, etc. Handy for reference is the survey of the world's newspapers, with leading examples. There is the usual number of new maps, with the obituary of the year, and all the statistical and biographic matter which makes this work a most valuable "cyclopædic record of men and topics of the day."

In the elegant reprints to which the Burrowes Brothers Co., Cleveland, has devoted itself, timely is Lionel Wafer's 'A New Voyage and Description of the Isthmus of America' (1681), published in 1699. The very competent editor, Mr. George Parker Winship, librarian of the John Carter Brown Library, has supplemented the text of the narrative (which was translated into many languages and reproduced in volume three of the 'Voyages' of his fellow-adventurer, Dampier) with notes drawn from the buccaneer literature of the time; besides furnishing a summary introduction. The original illustrations are given in facsimile, together with the British Admiralty map of the Darien country. The account of the aborigines lends especial interest to this relation.

There is some very happy designing in color and in black and white, by E. Mars and M. H. Squire, in Rand, McNally & Co.'s edition of Stevenson's 'Child's Garden of Verses.' The only blot on the decoration is the invariably unsuccessful attempt to improve on plain print in the cases where the verse is enclosed within an ornamental border. Some of the head and tail-pieces are noticeably dainty.

The last addition to the "Stories of the Nations," 'Mediæval India under Mohammedan Rule,' by Stanley Lane-Poole (Putnams), is a continuous and solemn warning against any dream of conquest of that, or indeed of any, Oriental people. The Muslim invasions are rehearsed, beginning with that first abortive attempt in 712 which led to nothing but a partial occupation of the valley of the Indus. Then there is a long silence until the end of the tenth century, when Mahmud of Ghazna, Mahmud the Idol-breaker, began his sixteen raids which swept the plains from the Indus to the Ganges. With him Islam arrives in India, and is the dominant force there through the Turkish kingdom of Delhi and the Moghul empire till the latter crumbled and fell in the eighteenth century, and the East India Company took its place. But, first and last, India absorbed and overcame its conquerors. They vanished or became Indian. India is still a unity, though Islam ruled it for over six centuries and a sixth of its population is now Muslim. Conquests and empires have effected nothing; the permanent is the leaven working silently in the lump. So now, when Islam no longer comes with power, fifty-thousand Hindus annually embrace it. The moral is easy to draw. The graphic accuracy of Professor Lane-Poole's delineation is above praise. Mahmud the founder, Babar of the Memoirs, Akbar in his search for a reasonable faith; Jahangir, the candid, with his oddities as we know them through Hawkins and Sir Thomas Roe; Aurangzib the Puritan; the Portuguese, the Dutch and the English in India, are all living here. In details we have noticed only one slip. On page 30, al-Farabi, the philosopher, is made part of the circle of Mahmud at Ghazna. But he died in 950, and Mahmud in 1030. Further, he would never have risked his head with Mahmud. Like his patron Sayf ad-Dawla the Hamdanid, he was a devoted Fatimite, while Mahmud was of the straitest Sunnite sect, an anthropomorphic Karramite. At Mahmud's court, al-Beruni wrote an exposure of the claims of the Fatimids to descent from the Prophet.

The monumental "Storia Letteraria d'Italia, scritta da una Società di Professori," which was undertaken by the publisher Vallardi of Milan six or seven years ago, arrives at virtual completion by the publication of Professor Francesco Flamini's 'Il Cinquecento,' a large and closely printed octavo in which Italian scholarship is seen at its best. The various literary forms of the sixteenth century, both prose and verse, receive exhaustive treatment in separate chapters, but no strain of Renaissance culture which affected literature is neglected, and the chapters on art, politics, and social ideals are among the most illuminating in the volume. Professor Flamini's erudition is remarkable, but the pages devoted to Ariosto, Castiglione, Michelangelo, Machiavelli, Tasso, indicate that critical insight and historical perspective have not suffered in the accumulation of the vast materials of research. The generation of Carducci, D'Ancona, and Pio Rajna is passing away, but the traditions of Italian scholarship in the North are safe in the hands of Professor Flamini, just as, in the South, the mantle of Francesco de Sanctis has fallen upon Benedetto Croce. An excellent bibliographical appendix completes the work.

The annual volume of the American Philological Association shows an encouraging gain in membership and a treasury balance of over $700, notwithstanding a contribution of £40 to the Platonic Lexicon in course of preparation under the editorship of Professor Campbell. This, by the way,

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is to be an annual contribution for three years. The proceedings of the Pacific branch, established four years ago, show quite a different trend from that of the parent society. While the latter devotes itself almost exclusively to subjects drawn from the language and literature of Greece and Rome, the subjects considered by the Pacific branch are almost wholly mediæval or modern. On the surface it would appear that the classical interests of the Pacific Coast are not strong enough to maintain an organization of their own, or even to save themselves from being swamped by the students of mediæval and modern philology with whom they have associated themselves. The bibliographical record for the past year shows quite a heavy increase in publications by members of the Association as compared with the year before. The membership list betrays some unfortunate instances of carelessness in proof-reading.

It is of good omen that the Massachusetts State Federation of Women's Clubs has put forth a 'Syllabus for the Study of the History of Civil Service Reform,' compiled by Prof. Lucy Maynard Salmon of Vassar, with the acknowledged aid of three alumnæ. The survey is divided into eleven sections, from "Civil Service in the Colonies" to "Civil Service in State and Municipal Philanthropic Institutions," and even a twelfth, "What Remains to be Done." References to sources and authorities are given under each heading, and the titles are repeated in full at the end. We should like to see this syllabus distributed on every college athletic field. Meantime it may be had gratis of Miss Perkins, Concord, Mass.

One hundred and thirty-two words incorporated into American English, and to some extent as firmly in the speech of the mother country—in one case, *totem*, in universal scientific nomenclature—are marshalled and commented on in the October-December number of the *Journal of American Folk-lore* by Prof. Alexander F. Chamberlain of Clark University. He remarks of the word *cantico* that it was used by the Dutch and early English colonists from Massachusetts to Virginia. It is possible, then, that we may recognize it in the name of Pocantico River and Hills in Westchester County, N. Y., with its mingling of aboriginal, Dutch, and English inhabitants.

The twenty-eighth annual report of the Minister of State for Education in Japan (1900-1901) has just been received, and its text is in excellent English. Besides being rich in valuable information well digested and arranged, it has along with its chapters and tabulations three folding sheets which reveal at a glance the relative condition of popular education in the Empire. Six of the forty-eight districts show that between 90 and 95 per cent. of the school population is under instruction, and it is interesting to note that these are old centres of learning. Ten others show a percentage of between 85 and 90, and these also have been characterized by intellectual activity. Other districts, for the most part bordering on the sea, which have been noted for commerce and manufactures rather than literary products, have from 80 to 85 per cent. The lower percentages in other districts are explained by the sparseness of the population, or the existence of large spaces of untilled land, as, for example, the extreme northern provinces and Yezo. The map shows no percentages lower than 50, though Formosa is not yet included in the educational scheme, now over thirty years old. The growth, from 1896 to 1901, of from fifteen to eighty thousand pupils in the higher female, the technical and the middle schools, is shown in other diagrams. In the industrial schools—for agriculture, commerce, seamanship, etc.—the pupils taking a commercial training make one-half, and those in the agricultural schools one-fourth, of the total in attendance. Figures and diagrams show very clearly how rapidly Japan is becoming a trading nation, with ambitions for commerce rather than for war, and demonstrate also the fact that her people must increasingly colonize and find food supplies abroad. The financial diagram showing the income and expenditure of public schools for ten years —from two to thirty-six million yen— proves that the Japanese believe heartily in "the cheap defence of nations." Among the wonderful variety of subjects are chapters treating of libraries, and of the Tokio Academy, "composed of members selected from among old and venerable men of learning," to which foreigners of equal dignity "who have meritoriously labored in the interests of this empire may be admitted as associate members."

Gustav Storm, who died on February 23, was born in Norway, June 18, 1845. For a number of years he was professor at the University of Christiania. His publications, which include a large number of articles published in German and Scandinavian journals, deal with early Norwegian and Icelandic culture, with special reference to history and travels. In 1887, Storm published a pamphlet on the voyages to Vineland, which two years later appeared in English. Between 1886 and 1889 was issued his translation into Dano-Norwegian of the Heimskringla, or the Kings' Sagas, as he preferred to call it, and in 1900 the Norwegian Parliament appropriated twenty thousand kroner as a subsidy for a popular edition of the work. At the time of his death Storm was engaged on an edition of King Sverre's Saga.

—The fourth volume of the 'History of Woman Suffrage' (Rochester, N. Y.: Susan B. Anthony) carries the chronicle down to the end of the last century (1883-1900). In bulk it equals its several predecessors, and, like them, it can be read for instruction only, not for pleasure. Like them, again, it is indispensable for reference, and not merely does it summarize the proceedings of the several National Suffrage Conventions, but it exhibits under each State the present statutory condition of woman, whether for the franchise or for property rights and protection against the seducer. As before, many portraits of leading suffragists are given, including the two editors, Miss Anthony and her associate of the laboring oar, Mrs. Ida Husted Harper. The periscope embraces the progress of the cause in Great Britain, also, and her colonies, and there are appendices of testimonials in praise of the working of female suffrage in the States of the Union where it has obtained, and lists of prominent advocates of it, legislators and officeholders, very significant of the change of tone within the memory of men in middle life. Miss Anthony's devotion of means and strength to this publication from first to last has seldom been surpassed in the annals of philanthropy, as one may read in the preface. Perhaps the most interesting section is that which relates to the growth of the suffrage or anti-disabilities movement at the South, which of course was impossible before slavery was abolished, and is now impeded by the same causes (including the color line) that made and make public opinion so hard to create and concentrate in that quarter. Almost nothing could have been done, apart from the Border States, without an alliance with the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. Except in Missouri, every organization has been effected since the date with which this volume opens, yet the editors can say of Kentucky that it was "the first State in the Union to grant any form of suffrage to women by special statute," viz., in its School Law of 1838 enabling widows to vote for trustees. In 1898, the Constitution of Louisiana granted suffrage, even by proxy, to all taxpaying women on all questions of taxation.

—A history of Egypt which extends to eight volumes and contains about 1,800 pages, with 135 additional pages of double-column index, might be supposed to be a very formidable aggregate. Such is the series put forth by Dr. Wallis Budge, keeper of Egyptian and Assyrian antiquities in the British Museum, and published by the Oxford University Press (New York: Henry Frowde). The whole range is indicated by the general title, "A History of Egypt from the End of the Neolithic Period to the Death of Cleopatra VII., B. C. 30." The first volume, dealing with the neolithic and archaic periods, was recently noticed in these columns. The facts presented in that volume indicated the results of excavations made within a decade and a half, and the book is a report of progress to date. It is a brief résumé, by a competent hand, of what the excavators themselves have written. It is not the final book, but it is to be welcomed for what it is. The following volumes present the historical sequence of known facts in regard to the dynasties, the rulers, and, to some small extent, to the people. There is little scope for originality, but plenty of room for picturesque presentation of the story in popular language with a view to general instruction and entertainment. Dr. Budge has made good use of this opportunity. The employment of hieroglyphic characters for the spelling of proper and official names in the midst of the text has a very learned look, but no reader need be terrified by the appearance, for this practice does not interfere with the reading of the book or the comprehension of the story in the least. And the story is one of no mean interest, particularly as two valuable expedients in illustration have been resorted to. The pages are adorned with very many woodcuts and half-tones, which give the successive steps in the growth and variation of Egyptian art, particularly that of the sculptor. Translations of a great many texts are also introduced, throwing a contemporary light upon the situation. Some of these texts, like the "Israel stela," were discovered comparatively recently; the Tell el-Amarna tablets come in for discussion for the remarkable light they throw upon the internal and external policy of the Pharaohs in the New Kingdom. The attempt is made to utilize all the discoveries

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that have been made, and thus to bring the story down to date. Good judgment is shown in regard to original documents, and Dr. Budge has not burdened his pages with abstruse and weighty discussions which have no interest for the ordinary reader, and serve only to distract attention without giving valuable instruction. While these volumes constitute the most complete history of Egypt that we now have in English, the scholarly inclined will hope that Petrie will soon complete his volumes covering the later dynasties, and that he will revise his first volume, already out of date. Though Egypt's history is the oldest known, its earliest periods now need to be written almost bulletin-wise.

—J. B. Firth's 'Augustus Cæsar and the Organization of the Empire of Rome' is the latest addition to Putnam's non-juvenile series of "Heroes of the Nations." The prescribed limits of the series, of course, forbade full and minute details of a life so long and busy, but nothing really essential seems to have been omitted. Perhaps the most questionable feature in the treatment is the assignment of about one-half the volume to the period previous to the battle of Actium, since a great deal of this earlier matter has been covered, and well covered, by the lives of Cæsar and Cicero, in the same series. Mr. Firth seems more or less open to the charge of vacillation in his general estimate of Augustus, but one must admit the difficulty of arriving at any consistent evaluation of so Sphinx-like a character. He accepts the present-day theory that it was a dyarchy rather than a monarchy which Augustus established, but is ready to admit a pretty rapid throttling of the power which the Senate is supposed at first to have retained. We can hardly agree that Augustus was by temperament not a radical at all, but really a disciple of Cato. His real spirit is to be sought, not in his policy of retaining old forms and names, but in the radical alterations concealed under cover of the old terminology. The reader is constantly reminded of the bitter words of Tacitus concerning the successor of Augustus: "Proprium id Tiberio fuit, scelera nuper reperta priscis verbis obtegere." We may agree with Mr. Firth that the net result of this crafty revolution under the disguise of the old terminology was a distinctly more orderly government, so far as ordinary matters of administration were concerned, than the mismanaged republic of the preceding epoch had been able to secure; but when it comes to striking the balance between tyranny and order on the one hand and liberty and disorder on the other, opinions will differ. Nor is one compelled by any unavoidable logical process to accept the assertion that the Roman Empire as it actually developed under Augustus and his successors, was the only humanly possible outcome of the previous disorder. Many a Latinist will object vigorously to the dictum that there is hardly a trace of real moral earnestness in Horace. The famous group of odes at the beginning of Book III. is a sufficient answer to that. But, aside from points of that kind, Mr. Firth has produced a volume of very solid worth, and, as it is the only biography of Augustus in the English language, its position will no doubt be secure.

—Last October we noticed the work called 'L'Habitation Byzantine,' a handsome volume by General L. de Beylié, published at Grenoble and Paris. We have now from the same publishers (Librairie Dauphinoise) a supplement containing eleven plates, with each two, and in one case four, separate photographic views, and twenty pages of text in which are interspersed a dozen illustrations in line. The motive of this new publication has been the discovery of some, and the further examination of other, Byzantine houses in Constantinople proper and two of its suburbs—that is to say, in Stamboul, Phanar, and Galata. The author, with that frankness which distinguishes all his work, expresses doubt, conjecture, uncertainty, on every page. He thinks that four or five of these old houses are of a date before the Moslem conquest, in 1453, but that the others are probably later, and it is for the reader to decide from the photographs how much of the old spirit remains in them. There is one peculiarity which, as it seems, is shared by many, perhaps most, of the eighty houses which are characterized as Byzantine, and are exemplified by the twenty described and illustrated, and that is the use in the upper stories of overhanging walls of solid masonry supported on cut-stone corbels. In several cases there are two such corbel-courses, and two stories carried in projection, one beyond the other. In some cases the overhang is very considerable; there is one which must be of five feet, but in this case the wall is not heavy. A peculiarity still more marked and unexpected is this—the overhangs are arranged *en crémaillère;* that is to say, the upper story presents an outer wall whose plan is like the teeth of a saw, one sloping side long, and the other very short—not one-fifth of the former: this upper story projecting above a smooth-walled, right-angled ground story. What purposes, as of defence, are hinted at by this curious disposition it is hard now to conceive. The little book would be of absorbing interest but for the unsatisfactory character of the collotypes. These are of that vexatious sort which present absolutely opaque shadows, profound blackness, in which all details are lost.

—Prof. Eugène Hubert, of the University of Liège, has utilized his exhaustive researches in the archives of Belgium and Holland in a memoir on the Barrier Treaties, which, as extracted from the publications of the Royal Belgian Academy, forms a quarto volume of 400 pages (Brussels: J. Lebègue & Cie). The subject, now well-nigh forgotten, is well worth the labor which the industrious professor has devoted to it. As early as 1673, the United Provinces of Holland formulated the project of converting the Austrian Flemish possessions into a buffer state to protect them from the ambition of France, and to this they tenaciously adhered during the vicissitudes of the endless wars of Louis XIV. With the support of England, almost equally interested in curbing French aggression, this became a recognized feature of European policy at the Peace of Utrecht in 1715, when the Barrier Treaty surrendered Flanders to the United Provinces, to be restored to Austria subject to stipulations under which the Dutch were to garrison Namur, Tournai, Menin, Furnes, Warneton, Ypres, and Knokke, while Termonde was to receive a garrison composed of the forces of the two Powers. This army of occupation was to consist, in times of peace, of 35,000 men, and its cost was to be defrayed by the unfortunate territory occupied.

—Under any circumstances, harmony was not to be expected between the native population and the armed strangers thus imposed upon them, but the inevitable sources of trouble were greatly multiplied by the question of religion. The Dutch were resolute Protestants; in Flanders Catholicism was the religion of the state. By the provisions of the treaty the strangers were entitled to the free exercise of their faith and to places in which to worship. Religious differences were still in a stage too acute to render practical toleration such as this easy to carry into effect. The Flemings protested violently, and the project of a Sicilian Vespers, in which the occupying troops should be cut off in a single night, was openly advocated. There was ample cause for trouble besides the local squabbles which were continually arising. Such Protestants as there were in Flanders naturally sought to share the privileges of the garrisons, and converts from Catholicism were protected. Faults were plenty on both sides, and clamorous complaints were incessant which not infrequently threatened sanguinary breaches of the peace. Former writers have diligently examined the political and diplomatic history of the Barrier Treaties, but M. Hubert is the first to investigate thoroughly what may be called the domestic aspects of the question and its influence on the population, by utilizing the fugitive literature of the period as well as the national archives and those of the municipalities. From these abundant sources he has been able to present a curious and instructive picture of the internal life of Flanders under these exceptional influences.

NOVA SOLYMA.

Nova Solyma, the Ideal City; or, Jerusalem Regained: An anonymous romance written in the time of Charles I., now first drawn from obscurity and attributed to the illustrious John Milton, with introduction, translation, literary essays, and a bibliography, by the Rev. Walter Begley. 2 vols., 8vo. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

For a generation which every year witnesses literally hundreds of additions to the already immense volume of fiction, it is difficult to realize a time like the first half of the seventeenth century when three romances, as the editor of the above volumes would have us believe, was the production of a nation during a period of fifty years. Perhaps, if the shade of one of these romancers of the earlier ages of fiction were confronted with the ridicule of his nimbler and more prolific modern brethren, he might reply in somewhat the same words of scorn as Edmund Burke to the lawyers who criticised his tardiness in the preparation of the case against Warren Hastings, namely, that a rabbit which was accustomed to breed some six times a year could naturally know nothing of the time required for the gestation of an elephant. The modern devotee to the kind of fiction which we usually as-

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sociate with the circulating libraries would certainly not be disposed to dispute one term of this comparison, but the serious student of literature, we hope, would interpret the answer in a less malicious sense.

'Nova Solyma,' indeed, is very far from corresponding to our present conceptions of a romance. It belongs in essentials rather to the class of works of which More's 'Utopia' is the most famous example, in which the author chooses the form of fiction to set forth his views on questions of education, government, or even religion. In the present work, however, the element of romance is not totally excluded in the press of didactic matter. Nevertheless, the didactic aim dominates here also throughout, as will be evident from the following brief outline of the contents of the book.

Two youthful Englishmen, Politian and Eugenius, who have had an opportunity of befriending a young man of Jewish race, named Joseph, recently the victim of a robbery, accompany him home to his father's house in the city of Nova Solyma—which, if it has any local existence, we may suppose to be situated on the site of the ancient Jerusalem. They arrive just as the inhabitants of the city are celebrating a great spring festival, in which the most conspicuous figure is a sister of Joseph, who appears in the pageant as the Daughter of Zion sitting in the shade of the symbolical Vine. The young strangers, who are smitten with love of her at first sight, are now brought to the house of Joseph's father, Jacob—a sort of House Beautiful, the abode of goodness and wisdom. The visitors have not been here long before the process of their instruction begins. The appearance of the two little brothers of Joseph, quaintly named Auximus and Augentius, affords an opportunity for a discourse from Jacob on the training of children according to an ideal system which is in force in Nova Solyma. This discourse is supplemented by an alleged dream, of allegorical import, which the matron who is charged with the care of the boys recounts as a warning against the temptations of pleasure. "What a happy thought," exclaims Politian, naïvely, "to turn mere idle tales to such profit!"

There next follows in the romance an episode with no directly didactic purpose. Alcimus, the son of Joseph's tutor, turns up repentant, and gives an exciting account of his adventures as a member of the band of robbers to which Joseph had fallen a victim. The author soon returns from this episode, however, to more edifying matter, and we have discourses now from Joseph on such subjects as the relation of art to nature, the origin and constitution of the universe—discourses which it would be impossible to make one's way through but for a certain genuine religious fervor which animates them. Omitting some intervening material, of which a story of witchcraft is perhaps the most curious, we come to the part of the book by which the author probably set the greatest store—namely, the description of the colleges of Nova Solyma. We have here the sketch of an idealized English university with a system of affiliated schools, such as it has been left for some of the universities of our own time and country to approach most closely in practice. In this division of his work the author develops very fully his ideas of education, the main object of which should be, as he declares, the training of good citizens rather than scholars. In setting forth his conception of the proper material of study, the author is led on to a discourse on poetry, and then, by way of illustration, he presents as a composition of his hero, Joseph, a poem in the epic style on the expedition of the Spanish Armada. In connection with the description of the ideal university we have specimens of both classroom and public lectures—the first of which, on the Christian Cosmology, is of a character to empty in a few minutes any modern lecture room, at least. These avowed *ex-cathedra* discourses do not differ materially, however, from others which in the course of conversation are delivered by Joseph, his father, and his tutor. All have a certain interest as reflecting the strong devotional feeling of a generation which, in the moral strength derived from religious faith, is not likely to be soon equalled again. There is particularly a crescendo of religious enthusiasm towards the conclusion of the book which is not without impressiveness.

These discourses constitute much the larger portion of the second volume, yet, as in the first, we have here also threads of adventure interwoven with the more serious matter—a pirate story, for instance, which seems to have been taken from a contemporary pamphlet; then the episode, involving even humorous situations, of a girl who, in adopting masculine disguise to follow her lover, becomes herself the object of mistaken passion on the part of one of her own sex. The editor identifies the source of this last story with that of "The Two Gentlemen of Verona"—namely, the second book of Montemayor's 'Diana.' In the midst of all these lectures and romantic episodes the two young Englishmen, Politian and Eugenius, have been almost brought to blows by the jealousy which has sprung up between them over Anna, the sister of their friend, and the chief figure in the festival with which the book opens. The author, however, introduces now a twin-sister identical in appearance with Anna—a device which has the double advantage of solving the difficulty that has arisen with reference to the two lovers, and of showing at the same time that love rests on a mere delusion. The romance closes with the marriage of these two couples, and a bridal song of Heavenly Love suggested by the Song of Solomon.

In view of the dearth of fiction from the period in which it was composed, Mr. Begley has unquestionably performed a service to scholarship in unearthing 'Nova Solyma.' It is of at least equal interest with the very similar 'Argenis' by Barclay, which, perhaps owing to Coleridge's exaggerated commendation, still receives considerable attention in histories of English fiction. The contrast, however, between the different fates of the two books is not a little remarkable. Whilst 'Argenis' was translated into all the chief languages of Europe, 'Nova Solyma' seems to have fallen still-born from the press. The book, which, as the author tells us, was written many years before, in his youth, appeared, to be sure, at a time which was anything but favorable to purely literary successes—namely, in the year of tension and excitement which preceded the execution of Charles I. It is possible, moreover, that, in the interval which had followed the publication of 'Argenis' (1621), the diffusion of the novels of D'Urfé and La Calprenède in England had given readers a taste for a new kind of fiction. As far as the attitude of the reading public of our own day is concerned, it is safe to say that nothing in so obsolete a style would have attracted the slightest attention outside of the limited circle of specialists in the history of fiction, had not the editor made bold to connect the work with the most illustrious name of the period to which it belongs. We do not believe, however, that the judgment of criticism will sustain this ascription.

In the first place, there is not a particle of external evidence to support the theory of Miltonic authorship; and, in view of the bulk of the book and the place it must have occupied for a considerable time in the thought and life of its author, this would surely be singular, were the romance really the work of Milton. On the other hand, the arguments from internal evidence which the editor adduces are of much too general a nature to carry conviction. Indeed, on first reading the preface in which he has marshalled most of these arguments, one can hardly suppress the feeling at times that he really is not serious. The impression, to be sure, is due in a measure to his rambling and would-be-facetious style; and only after sifting down the matter of these preliminary pages, and the notes which with a liberal hand he has scattered in season and out of season up and down these volumes, does the reader observe that the parallelisms which he cites here and there have a certain cumulative value, so that one can perhaps reconstruct for one's self some show of argument in favor of the view which he has advanced. But, after all, what is one to make of arguments for identity of such vague import as that the author of the romance, like Milton, was appreciative of music, was a praiser of abstinence, was interested in theories of education, and so on? Dealing with such propositions in a question of individual authorship is like beating the wind. The most that these things show is what probably readers of the book will very generally admit—namely, that the author was a Puritan of the most highly educated class. There are no special, telling circumstances, however, as far as we have observed, which identify him satisfactorily with the most distinguished member of that class. The similarity between the plan of education in the present work and that in Milton's famous tractate is too general to have weight. Furthermore, we would say that the Arianism of 'Nova Solyma' is not apparent to us; but in any event, we have no reason to believe that Milton had already developed views of that tenor in his youth—the period of his life to which this work would have to be assigned. After all, however, the diffuseness of the work and the absence from it of any passages of the highest imaginative quality, such as we cannot believe that any work of the imagination of this length from the pen of John Milton would have been altogether devoid of, tell most heavily against the supposition of Miltonic authorship. None of the abundant verse in the volumes seems

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to us to rise to the level of the best of the Latin elegies of Milton's youth.

But, apart from the question of quality, there is nothing in the known work of Milton that suggests the tremendous facility with which, to say nothing of the prose portions, the author of this work pours out epigrams, odes, an epic of no inconsiderable length, etc. One recalls, moreover, that, apart from translations, practically nine-tenths of the recognized verse of Milton's early life—especially is this the case with his Latin poems—relates to something personal, some incident in his life, his relations with his friends and similar subjects; whereas we have here a body of verse rivalling in bulk all that has been hitherto acknowledged as his for the period preceding his moving to Horton, yet dealing entirely with abstract themes and in no way giving expression to the author's personal feeling or experiences. Space forbids our taking up features of style in these poems which differentiate them from Milton's—such, for example, as the very sparing use of mythological allusions—a matter which has far more weight than Mr. Begley will allow. The most that can be conceded with regard to this claim of Miltonic authorship for 'Nova Solyma' is that the question deserves to be treated with a more exact critical method than has been employed by the editor. Such a treatment, of course, would have to be based on the Latin original of which Mr. Begley has here merely given us extracts in an appendix to his translation. To the question of sources which also calls for investigation, the editor has already made contributions of value.

In conclusion, it only remains to be said that the translation is well done. The stiffness which it is so difficult to avoid in turning Latin prose into English is seldom noticeable in these volumes to any disagreeable extent, and the metrical renderings are good. One may question the taste of employing terms like "rough-riders" and "syndicates" (in the modern commercial sense) in a translation of a seventeenth-century work; but in general the translator has preserved in his version the impression of mingled grace and austerity which we commonly associate with Puritanism in its higher manifestations—a union of qualities which stamps the work before us, whatever may be its faults, as the product of a noble age.

PEEL'S 'ENEMIES OF ENGLAND.'

The Enemies of England. By the Hon. George Peel. London: Edward Arnold. 1902.

Mr. Peel would have found it difficult to select a wider or more timely subject. "The meek shall inherit the earth" is not a text which fully accounts for the place occupied by Great Britain in modern politics; and where success has accompanied the lack of meekness, we need not wonder that hostile adjectives should rise to the superlative. Nearly ten years before the outbreak of the Boer war, Sir Charles Dilke candidly stated in Parliament that England had more enemies than any other country but China. The lapse of time has not reduced their number or qualified the heat of their resentment. Here, then, is a phenomenon which the enlightened Briton is bound to notice and, in his own mind at least, to analyze. When we consider the gravity of the question and the daily output of newspaper retort, it seems strange that no historical philosopher should have written a book about England and her enemies before.

In the first place, Mr. Peel's tone is exemplary. He might have been amusingly rude in any one of a hundred ways, for no vein of humor is easier to work than that which springs from the shortcomings of our national antagonists. English amenities in the days of the Dreyfus case must have incensed many a Frenchman to whom the name of General Mercier was hateful, and Mr. Peel, in turn, if he keeps a scrapbook, must have many a pleasant score to pay off. Were we to cast aside all canons of politeness and good feeling, any one of us might have a daily orgy of enjoyment in composing squibs against foreigners. However, these things do not help to bring back the age of Saturn, and when a writer in Mr. Peel's place shows a capacity for civil speech, the lovers of peace should applaud. The whole book is an argument, but one in which the writer does not rely for his effect upon smartness of repartee.

History has its secrets, kept under lock among the archives of religious orders and foreign offices. It also has its open secrets which are free to all the world—or would be, if the rarest talent were not required for interpretation. Why, for example, should England be disliked, or rather hated, by millions of people throughout the civilized world? Obviously, no document hidden away in Paris, St. Petersburg, or Berlin can give the clue, nor is it easy to believe that one simple theory of political progress will disclose the true cause of such antagonism. Mr. Peel presents us with a neat formula at a juncture where, according to our *à priori* notions, any formula must be an object of suspicion and most of all a neat one. Let us examine the nature of his proposition.

The decks are first cleared for action by a dismissal of the reasons which the Englishman usually assigns in private conversation as the grounds of this hostility. It is not a question of race, for racial sentiment has not sufficed to check the rancor of the Germans. It is not a question of religion, for the English and French hated each other in the fourteenth century, when both belonged to the same church. Neither are British tourists responsible for the mischief, as most people suppose, for Italy is their chief resort, and England is no more unpopular there than elsewhere. The man of business points to commercial rivalry, and Mr. Peel admits that the war of trade has played its part, though the main issues between England and the Papacy in their long strife have not related to money matters. Feelings of jealousy are allowed some weight, but it is pointed out that Philip II. was not jealous of Elizabeth, "who ruled over half an island only, and was seated on a shaking throne." Finally, we are told that some mysterious natural law forces nations into antagonism beyond their will. To refute this view, Mr. Peel cites passages from Pitt and Disraeli.

Such a survey and rebuttal of leading theories brings us to a single contention, of which the whole book is a defence:

"If, therefore, neither race, nor religion, nor manners, nor trade, nor envy, nor nature, satisfactorily accounts for this antagonism, the true cause is as follows. . . . Throughout the period from the eleventh century until now, several great powers have arisen in a consecutive series towards the domination of Europe, in imitation, conscious or unconscious, of Rome. But the success of any in that project would be death to ourselves. Accordingly, as the liberties of Europe coincide with our own, each power in turn, at a certain stage in its progress towards ascendency, has encountered the strenuous opposition of England. . . . Though we have thwarted or helped to thwart each aspirant, we have destroyed none; and thus, in course of time, animosities, bred from the broken ambitions of each, have slowly accumulated against us."

Dr. Fitchett has written a work on the wars of the revolutionary and Napoleonic era (four volumes bound in red), which he styles 'How England Saved Europe.' Mr. Peel's one volume is bound in blue, but there is no real reason why it also should not have been called 'How England Saved Europe, 1066-1902.'

Before making any comments of our own upon Mr. Peel's thesis, we shall briefly describe the way in which he develops it. He does not for a moment deny that these pushful European states which have sought to wear the mantle of Rome deserved the reward of greatness. Each in turn rendered some service to humanity and gained thereby a legitimate prominence. Unfortunately, however, the love of leadership degenerated into the lust of tyranny. Thus, with the Hapsburgs, *primus inter pares* was not a sufficient motto, but Frederick III. must put forth the challenge, *Austriæ est imperare orbi universo.* Had the Hapsburgs been content with guarding the eastern frontier of Christendom, all might have been well, but in their pride they conspired against the balance of power and brought upon themselves the enmity of England.

One by one the states of Europe have had their imperial or their colonial aspirations. Mr. Peel, after defining and illustrating his general principle, takes up the sequence of ambition in successive chapters. The long series of England's enemies is made to begin with the Papacy and end with Germany, by which we simply mean that Germany leads the pack at the present day. We give the list, and leave the reader to supply in most cases the obvious chronology. The Papacy (from first to last, beginning with the Norman Conquest); France (in the Hundred Years' War); Spain, Holland, the Bourbons, the French Revolution, including Napoleon; Russia, Germany. The book closes with a notice of the proposal which has been made by Treitschke and Prince Uchtomsky, namely, that Germany and Russia should combine against England. Is it likely, asks Mr. Peel, that the Dual and Triple Alliance will join hands that they may crush the island state? We shall not describe at large the obstacles which he places in the way of such a league, but the last of them is worth quoting from its particular reference to America: "Besides, the relatives of England across the sea might insist upon an inquest; if she died intestate, they might claim her inheritance, so that her decease would be the signal for a contest indefinitely prolonged."

In offering a few words of criticism, we may begin with the remark that Mr. Peel's essay seems academic rather than practical. It makes an entertaining book for the historian, and, just as it stands, it was well

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worth writing; but in our judgment its chief virtues are of an incidental nature, and do not spring from the merits of the main argument. While we should be the last to depreciate the value of the historical method, we doubt whether the causes of modern hostility towards England antedate the outbreak of the Seven Years' War. A truly practical book on this subject should begin, we think, not earlier than the time of the elder Pitt, and devote itself to the analysis of modern tendencies. The merest glance at the state of Europe in the middle years of the eighteenth century will show that the general feeling towards England was very different from the animosity which prevails to-day. Even during the war of the Austrian Succession, English was a fashionable language in Paris, and the spread of English ideas is always allowed some weight among the causes of the French Revolution. We need not dwell upon the fondness of the French liberals for England at this period, although they formed the élite of the nation, but we may recall the politeness of the officers towards each other during the Seven Years' War. When we reach the days of Nelson and Napoleon, the spirit has manifestly changed, and both nations are deeply embittered. France may be taken as an example, as she was the leading state of the Continent in 1750, and the most consistent opponent of England. Prussia, the rising power of central Europe, was, of course, an ally of England during the Seven Years' War.

When Mr. Peel asks us to plunge with him into the "dark backward and abysm of time," he gives us indeed some interesting facts about the relations of England with the Continent, but much of his pleading is beside the point. The line of argument which he follows out to prove that England has incurred the general enmity by opposing each of the greater states in turn, might with equal force be applied to France. Since the eleventh century no other state in Europe has passed through so many international complications as France or been so frequently embroiled. Every great state has stood in the way of every other great state, and helped, by pulling down its threatening neighbor, to preserve the balance of power. If England, protected by the sea, has often taken a notable part in these quarrels, she has, on the other hand, been implicated less often and less seriously than France. Nor can it be well contended that any strong antagonism between the Continental states as a unit and England sprang up before the Seven Years' War.

Speaking positively rather than negatively, we should be inclined to term the general enmity of the Continent towards England a modern sentiment, and one which is mainly due to the spectacle of an unwonted success. This view sounds commonplace, and we therefore advance it with a certain amount of shame. Still, there is one broad fact to which appeal can be made. States are seldom hated while they remain insignificant, and it would be hard to prove that England was generally hated before she achieved territory by the Seven Years' War, prestige by her part in the struggle against Napoleon, and wealth by the industrial revolution. The ways in which Englishmen show their consciousness of success may have added somewhat to the intensity of prejudice, but the root of the existing condition is not to be sought in a rich legacy of mediæval grudge, or in mere jealousy, but in the clash of modern rivalry. Were Great Britain "taken down a peg," we should hear much less about her from the press of Germany, France, and Russia.

A Canadian botanist spending a winter at Bonn was gravely informed in university circles that the Canadian contingents were driven by compulsion to serve in South Africa, and went thither with great reluctance. No doubt the growth of imperialism is disquieting to the Continent, and adds fuel to the flame. A larger item in the count against England is the prosperity of the United States, which, whether at peace or at war with the mother country, is none the less a state of English origin, and still remains actuated by many of the promptings which the English share in all parts of the globe. Continental *Schadenfreude* has grounds enough and to spare when it contemplates the spread and encroachments of the Saxon race. The idea that the grudges of to-day have been slowly accumulating since the eleventh century and are the fruit of ambitions successively thwarted, is much too archaic. The opportunism of politicians and of nations would be a sufficient bar to hatred of such long inheritance. England is hated not because she has thwarted the powerful, but because she is powerful herself.

This is our chief stricture upon Mr. Peel's book, which otherwise is the work of a scholarly and agreeable writer.

Kotto: Being Japanese Curios, with Sundry Cobwebs. By Lafcadio Hearn. New York: The Macmillan Co.

While Mr. Genjiro Yeto furnishes drawings in the body of the text and many a full-page picture, the frontispiece of this latest of Mr. Hearn's works is a photograph. It represents a graveyard, with the stone railing that simulates carpentry, and the Sanskrit monograms that lend literary glamour and holy mystery to the ignorant. Here we see the shaft capped with the image of Buddha in Nirvana on the lotus, the inscribed boulder, the symbolic monuments, including that which, by its various shapes, representing earth, air, water, fire, and ether, typifies the five elements of which man's body is composed, and, last but not least, the ever-fresh blooming flowers placed by loving hands *in memoriam*. All these fitly set forth the general character of the author's reveries, and in composite represent the one dominant thought underlying his score of sketches. Exquisite in fancy and rich in literary graces which clothe his thoughts, these seem for the most part to be as the exhalations of the graveyard. The dominant tone of all is not that of hope or cheer, nor is the outlook towards the future. It is rather that of melancholy, even of gloom. The main argument, contended for again and again, repeated almost with weariness, in Mr. Hearn's books, is that of involuntary memory, the organic memory of the race, the transmitted power that comes out of the great storehouse of ages of things remembered. This he finds not only in man and beast; even matter remembers. The dreamer thus (p. 169) confesses: "I cannot rid myself of the notion that Matter in some blind infallible way remembers." Later on the same page, this artist in words, who never loses his dogmatism even when most steeped in the spirit of beauty, utters further his creed: "In every unit of living substance, there slumber infinite potentialities simply because to every ultimate atom belongs the infinite and indestructible experience of billions of billions of vanished universes."

Armed with such a creed, Mr. Hearn revels in the delights that come from studying, in the land of little things, the minutiæ of Japanese poetic conceits, folklore, dreams, and reveries. Yet, lest the spectre of the brain should become too foul and disturbing, he happily, according to Japanese fashion, provides us at the end, in both text and picture, with Baku, or the eater of dreams. This creature, not least in the mythical zoölogy of Japan, has a double deck of eyes in his head and a triple array of eyes on either flank. The invisible brute is guaranteed to devour all nightmares and other creatures of darkness and evil digestion.

One would almost argue from Mr. Hearn's literary career in Japan that his intellect is taking on Japanese limitations. If we judge by the literature of Dai Nippon as the result of a thousand years of thinking, the delight of the natives is in little things. Works of sustained ability and noble proportions are few, though colossal mass, formidable continuity, and vast abundance of the fragmentary and ejaculatory, in numbers, chronicle, drama, fiction, and scripture, are not wanting. So in this latest of Mr. Hearn's volumes, daintily clothed as it is, we have only bits and chips—"curios and cobwebs." Nine little tales from old books illustrate strange beliefs. Some are ghost stories, others show how largely the islanders have made superstition the teacher of etiquette, appealing to fear, not only to deter from impropriety, but to hold immune and intact their system of social taboo, which shrinks with horror at the too much. This is notably illustrated in the case of a samurai who, instead of properly drinking tea out of a tiny cup, gulped it out of a large water cup. Seeing a face mirrored in the tea, he defiantly and repeatedly drank, ghost and all, only to suffer grief later. In the case of the hunter, expert with bow and arrow, on the one hand, and the priest seeing Buddhist visions on the other, common sense prevails over pious fancy. It is amusing to see how even the poor insects are saddled with superstitions and prejudices. The house fly, pestering the forgetful or dishonest man, is the unquiet spirit of the dead girl whose savings he did not invest, according to her request, in masses for her deceased mother. The youth, susceptible to his dream of a genuine Japanese Marjorie Daw, finds that she exists only in the breath of a frog. Even the crabs bear the image of the Heiké warriors who, after the great naval battle of extermination, were drowned off Shimonoséki over eight centuries ago. Most of the bugs of various sorts are associated with unlucky human beings or their wraiths, so that one can trace the outlines of history in popular entomology. The chapter on fireflies is an exquisite study of poetry, literature, folk lore, and science. The Japanese have always sung the praises of this living electric light, and have many dainty conceits concerning it. In these later days of the spectrum and photometer, Japanese university

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graduates have with the last refinements of experimental skill studied its powers, finding it a "miracle of nature's machinery." By the firefly's infinitesimal dynamo, a pure cold light is produced at "one four-hundreth part of the cost of the energy expended in a candle flame."

Between the condensed stories from native sources and the author's own studies, comes another picture of a graveyard which is unusually rich in wooden text boards and stone Buddhas. The translation of a woman's diary, touching in its simple pathos and simplicity, and showing the real woman's life as it is lived by thousands of poor folk in Tokio, pictures reality better than any foreigner could possibly do it. It is the story of a shy and gentle woman suddenly becoming, by parental dictation, the wife of a total stranger, and bravely resolving to win affection by docility and by faultless performance of duty. The traits revealed are typical of the moral character of a woman of the people. Four or five other papers, as light in texture as the spider lines across the lens of a telescope, but as exactly true and as effective for correct measurement of things which to the Occidental mind are as far off and mysterious as the planets, close a book which is rich in manifold elements of fascination.

The Lightning Conductor: The Strange Adventures of a Motor-Car. Edited by C. N. and A. M. Williamson. Henry Holt & Co. 1902.

The ship, the saddle-horse, the four-in-hand, the railway, have all been amply celebrated in print—even the bicycle has had, these late years, no small share of attention; and now it is the turn of the automobile. 'The Lightning Conductor' is a travel-sketch threaded upon so much of a plot of love-making that it may almost be spoken of as a novel. At any given point the travelling preponderates, so that the hero and heroine may be spoken of as tourists that fall in love rather than lovers that make a tour. Molly Randolph is a rich and handsome American girl, with a doting papa—at home—an unlimited letter of credit, and, to play the proprieties, an entirely complacent Aunt Mary. She was intending some sort of pleasure journey on the Continent when an impressive-looking acquaintance they met in an English village induced her to make it in a motor-car, for the purpose of getting rid of one that he wanted to dispose of. It proved to be "a German monstrosity driven by a jockey-pulley, an apparatus fiendishly contrived for breaking belts quickly." The lesson inculcated is that one should have a gear-driven instead of a belt-driven machine, and preferably something like the "beautifully planned Napier" of the hero, who opportunely comes to the rescue.

Almost everything disagreeable happens to the "jockey-pulley" machine that could happen: belts, chains, and exhaust-valve springs snap, crank heads grow overheated, and finally the chauffeur absconds with a sum of money. At this moment arrives a distinguished young Englishman, John Winston, travelling in his own auto; he is smitten with the charms of Beauty in Distress—and the descriptions of her high-bred type of looks and personality make this fully intelligible—and, on a sudden inspiration, manages to pass himself off upon her as a chauffeur by profession and get taken into her service. His place is no sinecure: he is seen, in the throes of repairing, even lying down on his back under the car, while green oil drips into his hair, and occasionally he has to dine at the servants' table; but he carries it all off in knightly fashion, and, after the canons of good literature with regard to the hero, nothing really degrading to his dignity is allowed to happen to him. The odious car, too, burns up, and he contrives to have the party go on in his own, which he ingeniously affects to charter. He, of course, is the Lightning Conductor.

The story is told under the form of letters—not quite the best mode of telling; one series from Miss Randolph to her father, and another from Mr. Churchill to his friend, Lord Lane. The necessary amount of trouble for a complication is supplied chiefly by a blundering young Anglomaniac and amateur Sherlock Holmes, one Jimmy Payne. The plot, as has been implied, is slender, but we are not dependent upon plot in the case; we are only too well satisfied to go on with such delightful people, and especially through such delightful scenes, on any terms. If the leisurely, the luxurious, classes of society are really producing types like these to any great extent, they don't deserve the abuse they so often get; and, if not, here are pages to which they might turn for emulation with profit. Churchill, the pretended chauffeur, is a most gentlemanly fellow; there is nothing of the "Barnes of New York" about him, starving the girl into docility; he is uncommonly delicate in avoiding any abuse of the opportunities open to him, and no equivocal situation whatever arises. If he only were not always quite so successful, if he would occasionally make a mess of it, he would be a little nearer to real life.

The line of travel is among the châteaux of the Loire, to Bordeaux, a corner of Spain, Toulouse, Carcassonne, Marseilles, the French Riviera, the Italian Riviera, Pisa, Rome, Naples, Capri, and finally Taormina. This is old ground, but the unusual method of locomotion and a fresh touch give it a new and living interest. It is difficult to cover so much ground in a narrative and escape mere cataloguing, yet this is capitally done here, with a light, graceful, accurate mention devoted to some places and very satisfactory fulness to others. The book will foment the automobile movement; Miss Randolph is as enthusiastic about it now as we all were about the bicycle once. It should be a good practical guide, too, to those about to go over the same course, while its charming descriptions of travel afford an ample new fund of pleasure, tinged with envy here and there, to the stay-at-homes.

London before the Conquest. By W. R. Lethaby. The Macmillan Co. 1903. Pp. 217.

In a happy phrase, Mr. Lethaby speaks of London as "a great palimpsest." The older writings have been destroyed by time or are now hidden by the accumulations of ages of débris and rubbish. Roman pavements lie twenty feet below the present surface, and over them is piled the waste of centuries. The deep excavations for modern buildings now and again bring to light a word of the original manuscript, but it is at best only a little fragment here and there laid bare for a moment. Of pre-Roman London we know nothing. We do not know the limits of Roman London. After the Romans comes a great blank; then, gradually, we get glimpses, increasing in number and definiteness from the Conquest onwards till at the end of the sixteenth century we have Stow's monumental 'Survey,' and the wonderful view-map in Braun and Hagenberg's collection of views of the greatest cities of the world. It is, of course, the darkest period of London history and topography that Mr. Lethaby has undertaken to illustrate. The materials are scanty, uncertain, hard to read. "Antiquities," said Lord Bacon, "or remnants of history, are, as was said, 'tanquam tabula naufragii,' when industrious persons, by an exact and scrupulous diligence and observation, out of monuments, names, words, proverbs, traditions, private records and evidences, fragments of stories, passages of books that concern not story, and the like, do save and recover somewhat from the deluge of time."

Where our knowledge is so scant and broken there is naturally room for great divergence of opinion. Take, for instance, the following from Mr. Lethaby: "In the 'Conquest of England,' Mr. Green stated the view that Saxon London 'grew up on ground from which the Roman city had practically disappeared.' . . . My view of Alfred's London is that the Roman city to a large degree continued to exist." Research has, it is clear, left sufficient room for play of imagination. The intrepid explorer is not to be denied. He may draw courage from the assertion of Sir Thomas Browne that "what song the Sirens sang, or what name Achilles assumed when he hid himself among women, though puzzling questions, are not beyond all conjecture." Of a truth we hardly know which task would prove the more difficult—the recovery of the Sirens' song or the determination of the topography of Saxon London. We are not quite sure that all has been done that might be done towards coördinating our knowledge of, say, Roman London, by carefully mapping the sites of relics discovered at different times. London lore is scattered in endless books and transactions of various societies. Some day, perhaps, the man will arise who will weld our scraps of knowledge into some sort of a whole.

Mr. Lethaby's knowledge of his subject is great; he has studied documents at first hand; he is possessed by enthusiasm for old London. To the outside public, Billingsgate is a mere fishmarket, known, indeed, throughout the English-speaking world for its vocabulary, more vigorous than elegant. Mr. Lethaby tells us: "For me the old British solar God lights up the squalor of Billingsgate." "London," he says, "is rich in romantic lore. In her cathedral, Arthur was crowned and drew the sword from the stone. Here Iseult attended the council called by King Mark. From the quay, Ursula and her virgins embarked; Launcelot swam his horse over the river at Westminster, and from it Guinevere went a-maying." Mr. Lethaby's industry deserves our gratitude. But the impression left by his book is confused. In the several chapters on the Rivers, the Roads, and the Bridge, the Walls, Gates, and Quays, and others, we are hurried back-

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wards and forwards till the brain reels. Only in the last chapter do we come to Roman London. But, though we could have wished for method, a better arrangement of matter, and the help of an index, we welcome Mr. Lethaby's contribution to an inexhaustible subject. There are many good illustrations of British, Roman, and Saxon antiquities.

In an appendix, Mr. Lethaby makes some remarks on the map to which we have referred, that in Braun and Hagenberg's 'Civitates Orbis Terrarum.' Its great value is fully recognized by Mr. Lethaby. He questions the contention that, as it shows the spire of St. Paul's (which was destroyed by lightning in 1561), the map (or, to be exact, the drawing from which the map was made) must be earlier than the date of that work (1572-3). He himself would date the map "about 1570." Examination of the names of houses shows, we think, that the map was drawn between 1553 and 1557. Nor can we accept what appears to be Mr. Lethaby's view that Braun's map is original. A publisher of that time would, no doubt, just as he would to-day, collect the best maps available, and reëngrave them. Mr. Lethaby is, perhaps, not aware that this was actually done in the case of one English map in the collection, that of Norwich. This was reëngraved with great exactness from the map given in William Cuningham's 'Cosmographical Glass,' published in 1559, the map itself bearing the date of the previous year. The detail of the map of London is so extraordinarily minute that it appears probable that the original map was on a scale considerably larger. Even as it is, the engraver has had to reduce the map to the required size by giving the Thames a severe bend at Charing Cross. The map is, in other respects, so accurately drawn that this seems the only reasonable explanation of the exaggerated bend.

The Primrose and Darwinism. By a Field Naturalist, M.A. (Cambridge). London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton. 1902.

Every note of this work is struck in the wrong key. In the first place, the recorder of observations in themselves interesting has chosen to conceal his identity under a pseudonym, whereas he should have put it in the power of every inquirer to place himself in communication with him for further information, if need be. In the second place, the author has forgotten that his notes, as notes, so far as they contribute anything to the knowledge of the subject, would have pleased Mr. Darwin, an investigator who was always ready to check his observations by those of others. But, instead of making these notes a kindly commentary upon Mr. Darwin's study of the Primrose, the anonymous author forces them to do service in ungenerous polemic. Even this contentious tone would perhaps be pardonable if the author showed at any point in his work that he is familiar with modern methods of research. But there is no internal evidence that the author has prosecuted his studies under competent guidance since the days, long ago, when, as he says, he was a pupil of the lamented J. S. Henslow at Cambridge. Almost every modern teacher of repute would have urged the author to seek for "the calm and catholic judgment" which Huxley justly ascribed to Professor Henslow. At all events, the exercise of a calm and catholic judgment would have rendered these pages pleasanter reading, and would have lessened the unavoidable feeling of antagonism which they excite. Under the influence of calm and catholic judgment, the author would realize that even his imperfect observations and his comments upon them would have been welcomed by no one with more kindly interest than Mr. Darwin himself. But instead of taking this judicial attitude, the author places each alleged fact as a chip on the shoulder, and defies the reader to knock it off. Such is not the attitude of dignity or conciliation.

The main contention of the author appears to be that Mr. Darwin was an unskilled experimenter, and was not justified in drawing certain conclusions from his observations on the Primrose. The story is now very familiar, but it may bear repeating.

The common English primrose has two sorts of flowers, namely, those with a long style which brings the receptive stigma close to the top of the tube of the blossom, and a second kind in which the style is short, reaching about half-way up the tube. The first blossoms, with the long style, carry their anthers, the little sacs of fertilizing pollen, only half-way up the tube, while the short-styled blossoms bear their anthers at the very brim of the tube; or, in other words, just at the level of the stigma on the long style. There is, thus, a correspondence between the two sorts of flowers; they seem to have reciprocal relations. By long observation, and by what has been hitherto regarded as most careful experimenting, Mr. Darwin showed that these apparent reciprocal relations are truly reciprocal, and that the pollen of the long-styled blossom is more potent on the stigmas of the flowers of the short-styled sort, and vice-versa. Many other plants besides the primroses have this double reciprocity, and all such are collectively known as dimorphic. There are certain other plants which have a trimorphic character, and a few are polymorphic. Insects play a very important part in conveying the pollen from one form in a given species to the other form or forms of the same species; thus, from the short-styled, pollen is carried to the stigmas of the long-styled, and conversely. Upon these plants Mr. Darwin experimented.

In the experiments under review, Mr. Darwin excluded by means of fine gauze all insects which might have conveyed pollen from and to the plants. The author claims that the employment of such a net over the blossoms introduced unnatural conditions. These conditions are said by him to be, in part, (1) the diminution of the influence of the solar rays, in passing through a close-meshed net; (2) the prevention of radiation, and the consequent lessening of the amount of dew received by the flowers; (3) absence of wind, which might shake the blossoms and scatter pollen. These objections should be shown to be valid, and they can be so shown only by long-continued control experiments. Careful perusal of these pages fails to show that the author has made or reported such experiments. We have his assertion that these objections are valid, but nothing else to prove that they are valid. To claim at this stage in the development of the science of botany that it is disadvantageous to blossoms to deprive them of dew, or diminish its quantity, requires a good deal of nerve on the part of the claimant. To assert that the absence of wind, with its aid in shaking the blossoms, was a fatal element in Mr. Darwin's experiments, indicates that the author has not read Mr. Darwin's account with sufficient care. The anatomical features pointed out by Mr. Darwin are apparently not appreciated by this Field Naturalist, and they are too lightly passed over to justify us in thinking that the author is judicial in his treatment of the matter.

The position which our author takes with respect to experimentation is amusing and pathetic. It is hard to think that any observer or investigator should willingly cut himself off from the aid of one of the most trustworthy handmaids in research, namely, experiment. And yet, incredible as it may seem, the author gravely writes this:

"We consider that it was most unfortunate for Natural Science that Darwin relied almost so exclusively on artificial observation, or, in other terms, on experiment, for the investigation and interpretation of natural laws in facts connected with the fertilization of flowers." (Preface p. vii.)

"Darwin's use of the net and his method of investigation not only misled Darwin himself as to facts of Nature, but his conclusions drawn from such methods of investigation have misled for an entire generation those of his ablest followers, who without questioning accepted his method and conclusions." (P. 226.)

The author's definition of experimentation as artificial observation, and his strictures upon it because it is artificial, are interesting. His prediction as to the ultimate result of the use of experimenting is likewise interesting, not to say, entertaining:

"In this field of research we cannot suppose it possible that Darwin's conclusions from his net experiments, and his numerous theories founded upon them, will be abiding. In fact, it involves a decision between results obtained under a net, with sun, wind, and atmospheric influences generally minimized, and the results as seen in the fields; *i. e.* a decision between Net-ism and Naturalism. It needs very little prophetic insight to foretell that the results obtained by the former method will, in the course of another generation, be discarded in favor of the latter." (P. 226-227.)

Probably the author would say that he does not object to experimenting, as such, but only to Mr. Darwin's experiments. Since, however, no experimental proof is offered that Mr. Darwin did not experiment properly, we must look a little farther to see whether the author's objections do not lie against conclusions rather than against methods. On page 226, we read:

"If, however, Darwin's conclusions as to dimorphic and trimorphic flowers are unsubstantiated, and his experiments invalid on account of the invalidity of his method of experimenting, the boundary-line between species and varieties still remains unmoved."

Now, no one can doubt that changes are going on relative to some of Mr. Darwin's conclusions respecting the scope of cross and close-fertilization, but these changes have not as yet much disturbed any of the primary questions. Least of all do these slight changes make it easier to go back to the time, say sixty years since, when the author studied under Henslow of

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Cambridge, when species were fixities and varieties never invaded their domain, to stay.

First-Hand Bits of Stable Lore. By Francis M. Ware. Little, Brown & Co. 1903.

In this little volume the author covers a wide range of subjects, from buying a horse to four-in-hand driving and the management of a pack of hounds. He starts out by crediting horsedealers with being reputable business men. This seems at first blush unnecessary, yet, upon further consideration, how seldom does one meet a friend who has the intention of investing in a horse without hearing him express a fear that he may be deceived. The author is quite right in advising that in such matters you put yourself in the hands of a reputable dealer unless you know what you want and are entirely able to select for yourself. Even with the price, quality, and general character agreed upon, a horse may or may not fit a rider. This may not count for much for an occasional ride, but for the habitual horseman a fit is essential to comfort. The advice that a horse once bought should be constantly used cannot be too often repeated. Many serious accidents have happened through allowing horses to stand without exercise, particularly when the weather is first turning cold. When one considers the careless disregard which obtains, in this matter, it is a wonder that more accidents do not occur. A horse should never be regarded as perfectly safe unless you are entirely certain that nothing unexpected is going to happen in his vicinity.

The chapter on soundness, coming as it does from one of so great experience, deserves serious attention. It is true, as the author states, that many veterinarians are not "horsemen"; he might go further and say that very few veterinarians are good horsemen. This accounts to some extent for their frequent inability to judge just what allowance should be made in case of defects. The sharp criticism on governmental requirements is justified by the fact that, notwithstanding the careful specifications and scrupulous inspections, the service frequently finds itself possessed of numerous undesirable animals. It should be remembered, however, that the Government buys cavalry horses at from four to eight years of age, a period during which an animal is apt to develop most of the defects to which he is liable. The Government should devote more attention to educating inspectors in order that they may be depended upon to waive immaterial defects, for one seldom finds a perfect horse without blemish or disqualification of some kind. It is true that many horses which have developed unsoundness continue for many years to render good service; nevertheless, the enormous weight carried on cavalry horses, averaging more than 250 pounds, demands serviceable soundness and conformation.

The chapter on stables and stable management contains many valuable hints. Ventilation without draughts; cleanliness without the odor of disinfectants; clean food given at frequent intervals, comprise the basis of advice along these lines. Of all the ills to which the young horse is subject none is more exasperating than influenza, which is induced by change from country pastures to city stables. The disease is known under many names, and seems to extend with great rapidity among young horses in the same stable. It often leaves the horse in a very weak state for a prolonged period, and not infrequently ends in pneumonia. It requires the utmost care in nursing and feeding to put the colt on the road to recovery and keep him mending. All this seriously interferes with the horse's education, which should be commenced as soon as purchased. During the recent war with Spain the disease created much havoc in the large volunteer camp at Chickamauga Park, where nearly 50,000 men, including a considerable proportion of cavalry, were assembled at one time.

The author indulges in some very pointed remarks concerning the relative value of the gaited saddler and the walk-trot-canter animal more commonly used in the East and North. In the South and many parts of the West the single-foot or rack is regarded with much favor, and is considered as the most comfortable gait for the rider. That it is not so for the horse, is made evident by the constant tendency of the animal to change his gait unless ridden up to the bit. Some animals descended through several generations of saddle horses perform at a single-foot much more easily than others, and are quite generally spoken of in the South as "born saddle-horses" in contradistinction to animals which always show the artificial nature of their gaits, particularly "the rack." Nevertheless, gaited saddlers continue to bring remunerative prices in country districts, although they are no longer salable in Eastern cities or for army use. There is nothing more exasperating in a cavalry command than an officer or sergeant leading a column at a single-foot or rack, for the animals trotting in the ranks can never properly regulate their gaits under such leadership. The best physical results from horseback riding are undoubtedly obtained at a trot, although some animals are entirely too rough for pleasant riding.

On the hunter and the steeple-chasers the author has some very practical hints. The discussion of the relative merits of the "flying" jump and the deliberate or bucking-over style of taking a fence is of more than ordinary interest. Owing to the big, lumbering character of many hunters, the flying jump is not so common as might be the case if lighter and smaller horses were used. If no accident occurs, it is easier to retain a close seat on the fast flying jumper, but rushing at obstacles is not the safest thing in the world. The picture of a "good form" jump opposite page 160 is pleasing to the eye at first glance, but is one more proof of the seeming impossibility of obtaining just the photograph desired for illustrating a book on the horse. The position of the heel of the rider is such that a spur, if worn, would rip the side of the horse in a cruel manner. The rider appears to be supporting himself by the curb reins in a way which does not accord with the author's advice.

Four-in-hand driving and coaching are treated of in two chapters in a manner to give the amateur the correct impression that if he wishes to be accomplished in either he must take to the box and "do things." Many books and essays have been published which convey the idea that one's appointments are the real thing, but as a matter of fact it is the coolness, experience, and ability to really drive four horses in a mix-up that make the lasting reputation.

Chapters on showing horses and the management of a pack of hounds close this interesting volume.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baedeker, Karl. Southern Italy. Leipzig: Baedeker; New York: Scribners. $1.80.
Bailey, H. C. Karl of Erbach. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Baker, E. A. A Descriptive Guide to the Best Fiction, British and American. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Balch, T. W. The Alaskan Frontier. Philadelphia: Allen, Lane & Scott. $2.
Baring, Maurice. The Black Prince, and Other Poems. John Lane.
Barry, Alfred. The Position of the Laity in the Church. (The Church's Outlook.) E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Beddard, A. P., Edkins, J. S., Hill, Leonard, Macleod, J. J. R., and Pembrey, M. S. Practical Physiology. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $5.20.
Bignell, Effie. My Woodland Intimates. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.
Blair, Emma, Robertson, J. A., and Bourne, E. G. The Philippine Islands, 1493-1903, Vol. i. Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.
Brady, C. T. The Southerners. Scribners. $1.50.
Brugière, Sarah V. and Brady, Adeline. The Major's Niece. Abbey Press. $1.25.
Carryl, G. W. The Lieutenant-Governor. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Chadwick, J. W. William Ellery Channing, Minister of Religion. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Clark, J. B. Leavening the Nation: The Story of American Home Missions. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Cohen, Ernst. Physical Chemistry for Physicians and Biologists. Translated by M. H. Fisher. H. Holt & Co. $1.75.
Colton, Arthur. Tioba, and Other Tales. H. Holt & Co. $1.25.
Cooke, G. W. The Poets of Transcendentalism: An Anthology. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Dewey, D. R. Financial History of the United States. (American Citizen Series.) Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Dudeney, Mrs. Henry. Robin Brilliant. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Edwards, J. H. God and Music. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Finley, H. T. Where the Needle Points. Abbey Press.
Flower, Elliott. The Spoilsmen. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Ford, Sewell. Horses Nine: Stories of Harness and Saddle. $1.25.
Fulton, E. A Selection of the Shorter Poems of Wordsworth. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Gray, Maxwell. Richard Rosny. D. Appleton & Co.
Green, Anna K. The Filigree Ball. Indianapolis. The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Harben, W. N. The Substitute. Harpers.
Henderson, C. H. John Percyfield: The Anatomy of Cheerfulness. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Hill, G. F. Illustrations of School Classics. Macmillan. $2.50.
Hope, Graham. The Triumph of Count Osterman. H. Holt & Co. $1.50.
Isham, F. S. Under the Rose. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
King, Charles. A Daughter of the Sioux. The Hobart Co.
Kinkaid, Mary H. Walda. Harpers.
Kutner, Arnold. Commercial German. American Book Co. $1.
Laughlin, J. L. The Principles of Money. Scribners. $3.
Letters of Mlle. Julie de Lespinasse. Translated by Katharine P. Wormeley. Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co. $1.25.
Macdonald, D. B. Development of Muslim Theology, Jurisprudence, and Constitutional Theory. (The Semitic Series.) Scribners. $1.25.
MacManus, Seumas. A Lad of the O'Friels. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Millin, G. F. The Village Problem. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.
Nason, F. L. The Blue Goose. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Norris, W. E. Lord Leonard and Luckless. H. Holt & Co. $1.50.
One Hundred and Twenty-eight Books and Manuscripts, formerly in the Cabinets of Royal Bibliophiles during the XVIth., XVIIth., XVIIIth, and XIXth Centuries. London: J. Pearson & Co.
Oppenheim, E. P. The Traitors. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
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